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A STUDY  
OF THE RELATION OF DIFFERENTIAL VALUES  
TO SOCIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE INTERACTIONS  
by  
DANTE LUPINI

A THESIS  
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE  
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Study of the Relation of Differential Values to Social and Administrative Interactions" submitted by Dante Lupini in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



## ABSTRACT

This study was designed to assess the extent to which the principal's and teachers' values in a school situation are related to the social and administrative interactions within that school. The investigation was focussed primarily on two value variables within the school. These were the extent of similarity between the principal's values and the teachers' values (Value-Congruence), and the degree of variation in teachers' values in any one school (Value-Consonance).

The research was carried out during a two-week period in January of the 1964-65 school year. Involved in the study were eighty-one principals and 854 teachers from eighty-one elementary schools in the Greater Montreal area. The schools included in the sample were those with a minimum of five permanent teachers and a principal or vice-principal in charge.

The Differential Values Inventory developed by Richard Prince was used to measure individual values. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, developed by Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft was used to measure social behaviour within the school. The General Questionnaire was developed especially for this study and was used to obtain





information relating to the individual characteristics of the respondents.

The study showed Value-Congruence to be significantly related to certain aspects of social behaviour within the school. However, no statistically significant relationships were found between Value-Consonance and social behaviour. A number of significant relationships were found between more specific values held by individuals within the school and certain social and administrative interactions. With few exceptions, the values held by principals and teachers showed a statistically significant relationship to the Organizational Climate of schools.

Finally, older principals and older female teachers were found to be significantly more traditional in their value patterns than their younger counterparts. No significant relationship was found between the values of male teachers when divided on the age factor. The study also showed that female teachers are significantly more emergent in their value patterns than are the male teachers.



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about the role of values in social behaviour. Social scientists have come to realize the importance of values to the study of their respective disciplines. The problem of values is common to the study of economics, sociology, psychology, social psychology, anthropology and political science. It has been said that whereas specialization has more and more separated and insulated these studies from one another, values have drawn from them a core of problems in which they all share.

The current interdisciplinary approach to the study of educational administration has helped to underscore the cruciality of values to the administrator. His effectiveness as a leader will be determined to a considerable extent by his ability to make well-grounded decisions in human affairs. Values are central to the decision-making process.

In spite of their importance, however, surprisingly little research has been conducted in this area. Doubtless, one of the main reasons is the divergence of thought which has been presented on this topic. The effect of the varied



definitions for instance, may well have resulted in creating a concept so broad it seems to defy analysis. A second, and perhaps more plausible reason for the dearth of research, stems from what may have been a failure to clearly differentiate between the descriptive and the philosophical treatment of values. Whereas the descriptive approach attempts to assess the effect of values on the social behaviour of individuals, the philosophical approach treats values as ideals. Recently, however, as a result of operational definitions, meaningful classifications, and refined instruments, the concept of value has become more amenable to research. The result has been a number of recent attempts to undertake the much required investigation. The present study represents one such attempt.

The sections in this chapter outline the problem of this study, indicate the importance of the investigation for extending our knowledge of educational administration, and give recognition to some of the assumptions and limitations of the study. The concluding section contains a guide to the organization of the thesis.





## I. THE PROBLEM

### The Basic Problem

One of the significant changes in recent literature and research pertaining to educational administration has been the apparent shift in focus from the technical skills required by an administrator, to the more complex human and conceptual skills. Theory in this area has described the administrator as one who operates primarily in an interpersonal or social setting. It follows, therefore, that gaining an adequate understanding of those individuals with whom he is expected to carry out the task of education is one of his most important functions. The present study attempts to facilitate the task of the administrator in this regard. It is based on the theory that the values held by individuals in an organizational system have an important bearing on the social behaviour within that system. More specifically, the basic theory underlying this study was presented by Spindler (6) and subsequently elaborated by Getzels (2). It suggests that certain values are undergoing changes from "traditional" to "emergent" orientations. Older principals and teachers because of their age and time of their childhood training, are more likely to be traditional in their value patterns



than their younger counterparts. These differing values are expected to create value conflicts and misunderstanding, a situation which could affect the social behaviour within the school. Therefore, the central research problem of this study was to assess the extent to which the principal's and teachers' values in a school situation are related to the social and administrative interactions within that school.

### The Sub-Problems

The first sub-problem of this study was to determine the extent to which agreement or disagreement in the values held by the principal and the teachers in a school is related to the social behaviour within that school. Specifically, are there significant differences between the social behaviour within those schools where principal and teachers hold to similar value patterns as compared to those schools where disagreement in values exists?

A second sub-problem of the study was to assess the extent to which similarity in the values among staff members relates to the social behaviour within the school. Are there significant differences in the behaviour of the teachers or the behaviour of the principal in those schools where the teachers hold values similar to one another as compared to





those schools where the staff members hold to different value patterns?

A third area for investigation was the extent to which the nature of, rather than similarity in, values relates to the social behaviour within a school. Specifically, is there a significant difference between the social behaviour within those schools where the principal and teachers are "traditional-oriented" in their behaviour as compared to the social behaviour within those schools where the principal and staff are "emergent-oriented"?

Finally, it appeared important to determine whether older principals and teachers in Canadian schools do, in fact, hold to more traditional values than their younger counterparts. This was considered essential since this study was the first known to the investigator to be undertaken in Canada, which attempted to study the values of principals and teachers along the traditional-emergent framework.

## II. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Willower (7), in a recent article, outlines four problems which demand investigation in a descriptive approach to the study of values in educational administration. The



problem which particularly emphasizes the need for this study is outlined as follows:

How does the degree of congruence of values held by various members of an organization affect factors such as morale, productivity, cohesion, and so on? For example, is teacher morale higher when teachers and their administrators hold similar views (7, p. 159)?

Shartle suggests that we, in education, need to know more about individual value patterns and their influence on small group behaviour. He claims that this knowledge about the values of individuals will be particularly useful in making "predictions concerning the behaviour of each individual and the group when confronted with a specific problem" (5, p. 84). Argyris comments on the importance of having the "right-type" administrator for certain employees, if proper working relationships are to be maintained (1). That is, those administrators whose attitudes toward the work situation are similar to those of their employees are more likely to be rated as effective than those with different attitudes.

As previously stated, empirical studies of values in educational administration are very few in number. Although the literature has for some time underscored the important role which values play in administrative behaviour, most of it has dealt with the philosophical aspects of values. For





instance, in 1948 at the Second Work Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), discussion centered mostly on the basic ideals of the American democratic society regarded by the group as the most fundamental of all values. One year later, at the third Conference, a subcommittee on philosophy was established to investigate further the stated values and value systems of professors of educational administration. It was not until the concepts could be defined in operational terms and presented in a "workable" or testable rationale, that empirical research could be undertaken.

The traditional-emergent framework presented by Spindler and elaborated by Getzels seems a useful approach to the study of values. Moreover, the relevant research reviewed in Chapter III of this study suggests that fruitful findings could be made by investigating this area further. There seems to be sufficient evidence that values are related to social behaviour; the finer aspects of this relationship, however, are still very obscure. Yet successful administration by definition demands keen insight into subordinate-superordinate relationships. "Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating, and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the





social system" (3, p. 156).

The unique contribution of this study lies in an attempt to delve further into the relationship between various aspects of differential values and different forms of social behaviour. It is hoped that the findings will help to sharpen our insights into the interpersonal relationships within the school.

### III. ASSUMPTIONS

Perhaps the major assumption underlying the present study is that values are measurable by an analysis of the oral or written expressions of an individual or a group. Some would contend that values are implicit in the behaviour of others, and any true study of values would necessitate the observation of this behaviour. Proponents of the "observation" method will maintain that what a person says or writes does not tell us what his values "really" are but gives us only speech reactions. More specifically therefore, the first assumption of this study is that what a person says about his values is equally as valid, and, perhaps, truer from the long term viewpoint than inferences drawn from his actions under special conditions. Kluckhohn argues as follows:



The fact that an individual will lie under stress of unusual circumstances does not prove that truth is not a value which orients, as he claims, his ordinary behaviour. As a matter of fact, people often lie by their acts and tell the truth with words. The whole conventional dichotomy is misleading because speech is a form of behaviour (4, p. 406).

Another assumption is that the instruments used possess the degree of reliability and validity suitable for the present study.

It is also assumed that the teachers and the principals who participated possess the required knowledge to complete the instruments.

Finally, it is assumed that the social behaviour remained stable over the two-week period during which the study was conducted.

#### IV. LIMITATIONS

This study is subject to one of the common problems of research in the social sciences. The two variables tapped represent only one selective aspect of the respective global concepts. Thus, the instrument used to measure values (Differential Values Inventory) does not measure all aspects of a person's values, nor does the instrument used to measure social behaviour (Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire) measure all components of social behaviour. In spite





of these limitations, however, it was felt that the findings could prove useful in providing greater insight and understanding into some of the finer aspects of interpersonal relations within the school.

Another definite limitation of this study is of a statistical nature. The use of the arithmetic mean for instance, as a measure of central tendency in determining the values held by a number of teachers in any one school could be misleading. In many cases, especially where the variation in value scores is relatively great, the mean value score may in fact be a rather poor representation of held values in the staff. In these cases, typologies of values could prove more useful. However, inasmuch as the number of teachers in most schools is too small to break down into meaningful typologies, and inasmuch as the mean does have the property of being the most accurate measure of central tendency, it was used extensively for that purpose in this study.

## V. DELIMITATIONS

Only English Catholic elementary schools in the Greater Montreal area, with at least five permanent teachers were used.

This study was concerned with the social behaviour



within schools during a two-week period only.

All data for this study were collected solely by means of questionnaires.

### Organization of the Study

The following chapter presents the theoretical framework on which this study is based. Also included in the next chapter is a definition of terms used in the study followed by a description of the formulated hypotheses. The relevant research studies are reviewed in Chapter III. The instrumentation, collection of data and preliminary analysis are presented in Chapter IV. The following two chapters include the testing of the formulated hypotheses. The study concludes with a summary of the findings, conclusions relating to a number of factors, and implications for further research.





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## CHAPTER II

### THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### I. VALUES AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

##### A Social Systems Model

A substantial part of the theoretical framework for this study is based on interpersonal behaviour within a social system. The model chosen for this aspect of the analysis was first presented by Getzels and Guba (7, p. 156). It has since proven to be a useful theoretical formulation. Although it was designed to study the social and psychological aspects of behaviour in any social system, for the purposes of this study, it was used primarily for the investigation of interpersonal behaviour within the school.

The school as a social system may be viewed as involving at least two distinct and separate classes of phenomena. Included in the first class are those aspects of the phenomena which are sociological in nature. Viewed in this perspective, the school is made up of institutions with certain roles and expectations that will fulfill the goals of the system. In the second class of phenomena are those aspects which are psychological in nature. From this perspective the school





comprises individuals with certain personalities and need dispositions. The first class of phenomena--institutions, role and role expectations is termed the nomothetic dimension; the second class of phenomena--individuals, personalities and need dispositions is termed the idiographic dimension. The model may be presented graphically as follows:

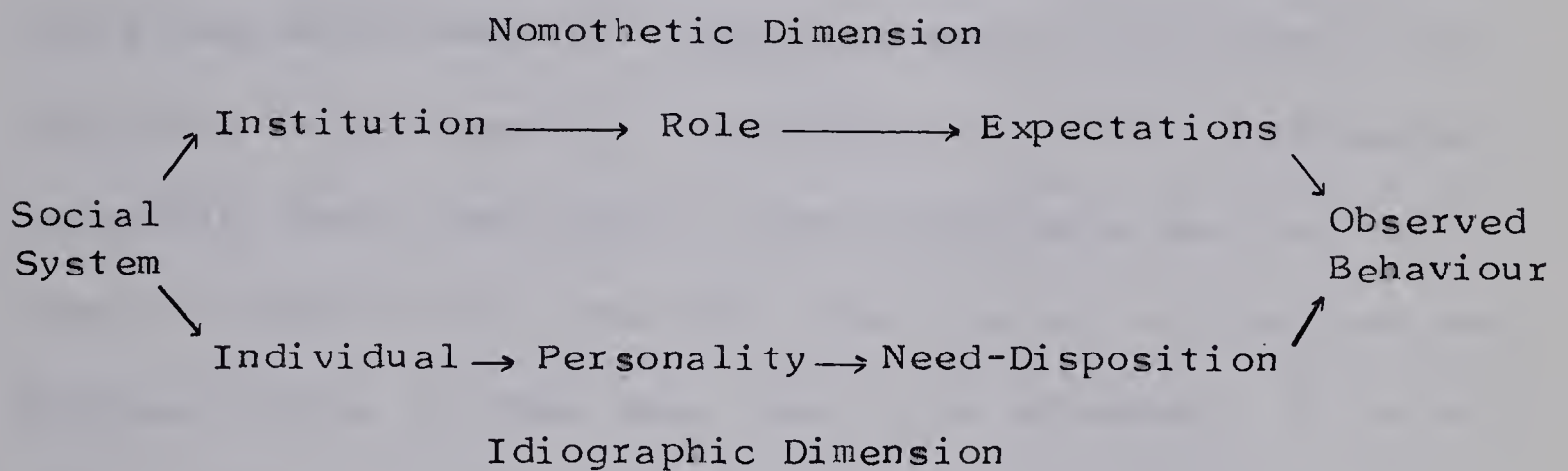


FIGURE I

THE GETZELS-GUBA MODEL SHOWING THE NOMOTHETIC AND IDIOGRAPHIC DIMENSIONS OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR.

The behaviour of an individual may be conceived as a function of both his role (defined by the expectations attached to the status he occupies); and his personality (defined by certain need dispositions).

The model can be adapted to the study of administration if we:

. . . conceive of administration structurally as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of





relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system. It is here, in these relationships that the assignment of statuses, the provision of facilities, the organization of procedures, the regulation of activity, and the evaluation of performance takes place (7, p. 151).

Within the context of the school, therefore, one might think usefully in terms of administrative relationships between the principal and his staff, and social relationships among the staff members. The achievement of goals will depend to a large extent on the dynamics of this interpersonal behaviour. More specifically, some principals and teachers seem to understand at once what their mutual obligations are; whereas others, if they ever come to an agreement, do so only after a long period of time. Getzels examined this problem by investigating the relation of the perception of individuals on their social behaviour within an organization.

### Perception and Interpersonal Behaviour

According to Getzels, many of the problems within a social system result from inaccuracies in the perceptions of individuals within the system. Problems between the principal and his staff, or friction among staff members, for instance, frequently result from inaccurate perceptions of their mutual expectations. In order to explain this problem,



Getzels introduced the concept of selective interpersonal perception and explains it as follows:

In a sense, we may conceive of the publicly prescribed normative relationships of two complementary role incumbents--the prescribed interaction as set forth in, say, a table of organization--as being enacted in two separate private situations, one imbedded in the other. On the one hand, there is the prescribed relationship as perceived idiosyncratically and organized by the one role incumbent in terms of his own needs, dispositions and goals; on the other hand, there is the same prescribed relationship as perceived idiosyncratically and organized by the other role incumbent in terms of his needs, dispositions and goals. These private situations are related through those aspects of the existential public objects, symbols, values, and expectations, which have to some extent a counterpart in the perceptions of both individuals (7, pp. 155-156).

Getzels suggests that the proper functioning of the administrative process will depend upon the degree of overlap in the perceptions of role incumbents.

A number of studies suggest that congruency in the perception of expectations often takes priority over actual observed behaviour in determining which outcomes of administrative interaction will be reported favorably by the participants in the interaction and which unfavorably. Ferneau, for instance, found that consultants and administrators must perceive each other as functioning in the manner expected if the consultant is to be described as effective (4). Hencley studied interpersonal perception between superintendents and a





number of referent groups as a possible source of conflict (11). He concluded that a majority of all conflicts in superintendent-referent group relations indicate inaccuracies in perception. Rasmussen, who studied perceived value discrepancies of seventy-six teachers and twenty-two principals, found that many of the seventy-six teachers involved in the study were in a rather uncomfortable predicament because they incorrectly perceived their colleagues and principals as holding much less liberal views than their own (19).

It would appear, therefore, that role incumbents will understand each other to the extent that their individual perceptions of the prescribed expectations are congruent. Therefore, the concept of selective interpersonal perception seems useful for the study of social and administrative interactions within a social system.

### Values and Perception

Stogdill has related the concepts of values and perception as follows:

Thus an individual's perception of a situation is determined both by the information he derives from the situation and by the set or expectation in terms of which he views the situation. The desirability of a situation is estimated in reference to internalized scales and norms of value which are determined by past experience. That which departs from the norms tends to be rejected (24, p. 72).





A number of empirical studies have been conducted which show strong support for the thesis that values do influence perception. Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies experimented with the time of recognition for a number of words representing the six Spranger Values. The results led the authors to propose three complementary selective mechanisms:

1. Selective Sensitization - value orientation acts as sensitizer, lowering thresholds for acceptable stimulus objects.
2. Perceptual Defense - value orientations may raise thresholds for unacceptable stimulus objects.
3. Value Resonance - the perceiver, whatever the nature of the stimulus, tends to see words which reflect his value orientation, even in their absence (16, pp. 381-383).

Haigh and Fiske replicated the study of Postman and his associates with the addition of more satisfactory statistical procedures (9). Their findings corroborated those of the previous findings. Two years later Gilchrist, Ludeman and Lysak found that the recognition threshold of words with both negative and positive value connotations is lowered in comparison with words which are neutral in value, thus essentially substantiating all previous results (8).



More recently, Abbott studied the influence of held values in superintendent-school board relationships (1). His hypothesis that an individual's own values will influence his perception of the values held by others was supported. In concluding his report, Abbott states:

The concept of interpersonal perception is therefore important in administrative relationships. In a sense each person may be said to function in a world of his own making. His attitudes and values serve as a perceptual screen; he interprets his environment according to the way he perceives it; and he reacts to that environment in accordance with his interpretations (1, p. 78).

In summary, therefore, one might conclude from the findings of the relevant research that values do influence perceptions. The two sections which follow will investigate differential values in society and in the schools.

### Differential Values and Society

The social sciences literature in America has expressed considerable interest in what appears to be a "shift" in a number of the values held by Americans. Sociology and Anthropology have been especially preoccupied with the "transforming American Culture." Riesman wrote of the "inner-directed" and "other-directed" man. The "inner-directed" individual is described as having a built in gyroscope which makes it possible for him to accomplish his goals with a minimum of





concern for the opinions of others. The "other-directed" man is observed as one with a built in radar set making him sensitive to the opinions of others. These opinions will have considerable bearing on his course of action (21, p. 41).

Whyte's concern over the social ethic replacing the Protestant ethic stems from what appears as a bureaucratization of society. Indeed, Whyte states that the social ethic could "with reason be called an organization ethic, or a bureaucratic ethic; more than anything else it rationalizes the organization's demands for fealty and gives those who offer it wholeheartedly a sense of dedication in doing so" (26, p. 6).

Wheelis concluded that, "The key words of our time are flexibility, adjustment and warmth--as, for our grandfathers they were work, thrift, and will" (25, p. 85).

Perhaps the latest general concern for the effects of differing values in modern society was manifested at the 32nd Couchiching Conference at Geneva Park, Ontario, in 1963. It was at this conference that ten authors from a variety of backgrounds and representing a number of disciplines, came to discuss the central problem of the conference, "Values in Conflict" (20).





### Differential Values and the School

Although a number of writers have shown concern over the possible effect of changing values in the school, the work of Spindler and Getzels has probably had the greatest impact on educational thought and research. The present study was designed to investigate further into the validity of their presentations.

The Spindler rationale. In 1955 Spindler presented the following rationale:

Conflicts between groups centering on issues of educational relevance and confusion within the rank and file of educators can be understood best, I believe, in the perspective of the transforming American culture that proceeds without regard for personal fortune or institutional survival (23, p. 156).

Spindler categorizes values as "traditional" or "emergent." The traditional values of thrift, self denial, success, individualism, achievement, and orientation towards the future are giving way to sociability, ultimate consideration for others, hedonism, and conformity to the group.

Spindler sees different groups which operate within the educational system as occupying different positions along a values continuum.



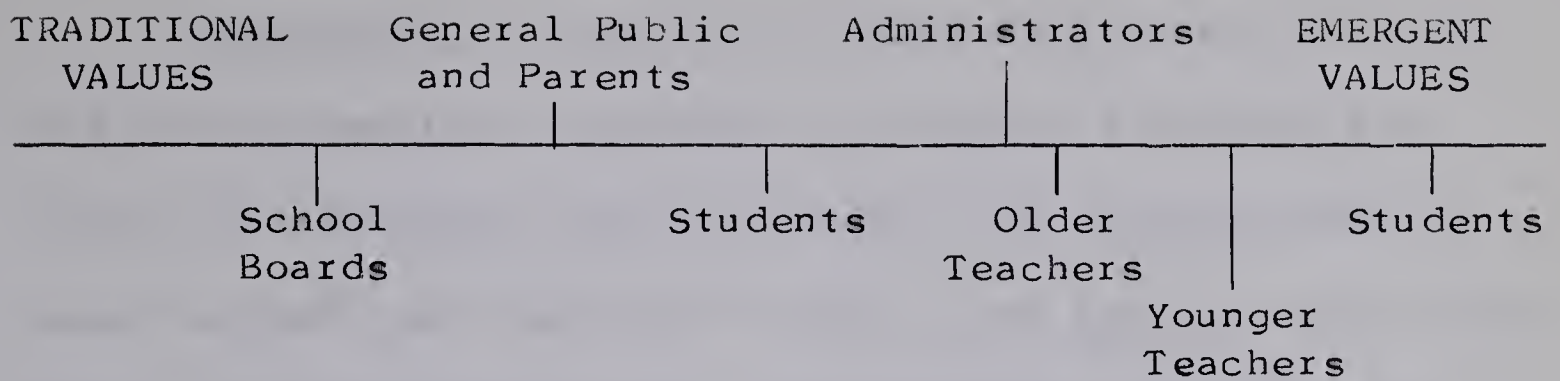


FIGURE II

## SPINDLER'S VALUES CONTINUUM

School boards tend to be the most traditional because they represent the status quo elements of the community. Students from emergent-oriented families will tend to be more emergent than those whose parents are more traditional. Older teachers will likely hold more traditionalist views by virtue of their age and time of their childhood training. Younger teachers, as a result of being exposed to a professional education culture that has become rapidly more emergent-oriented in its value position, will most probably hold more emergent views. The administrator, because he must look to the school board and certain community groups, "will tend to make his outlook relatively more conservative and probably more traditionalistic than that of his teachers--at least the younger ones" (23, p. 152).





The Getzels rationale. In 1957 Getzels (6) used the rationale presented by Spindler to elaborate further the traditional-emergent value framework. He distinguishes between "sacred" and "secular" values. The sacred values, among which he includes democracy, individualism, equality, and human perfectability, have remained relatively unchanged. These, says Getzels, are basic to all Americans. These are "the things worth fighting for." The sacred values may be given different interpretation by various individuals or groups. Views of what constitutes human perfectability, or how best to attain it, for instance, will no doubt vary according to one's philosophy of life. Nevertheless, these sacred values are as significant today as they were yesterday. In other words, they are our ultimate goals.

In contrast, our secular or more mediate values have undergone considerable change in four crucial directions:

1. The traditional value of Work-Success characterized by achievement, hard work and self determination is giving way to the emergent value of Sociability characterized by a desire for frictionless interpersonal relations. When two hundred seniors in twenty colleges and universities were asked to





describe their personal aspirations and life goals, they talked more about their social and personal gratification than about career achievement.

2. The traditional value of Future-Time Orientation, where immediate needs are denied satisfaction for greater satisfactions to come, is giving way to the emergent value of Present-Time Orientation characterized by more hedonistic attitudes. "Our wealth is measured more by how much we owe than by how much we own."
3. The traditional value of Independence or the Autonomous Self characterized by self-determination, self-activity, and self-perfection is giving way to the emergent value of Group Conformity characterized by compliance and adjustment to the group. Riesman's observation that our inner gyroscope is being replaced by a built in radar that alerts us to the feelings of others is applicable here.
4. Finally, the traditional value of Moral Commitment characterized by respectability, thrift and self-denial, is giving way to the emergent value of Moral Relativism without strong personal commitment and



where absolutes in right and wrong are questionable (6, pp. 151-154).

Getzels suggests that these changing values create "value dilemmas" and conflict because they are held in varying degrees by different persons in the school and in the community:

And so we have, side by side in the community and in the educational institutions a kaleidoscope of shifting and confusing, if not absolutely contradictory, assumptions about life and the values that are really ours (6, p. 154).

Prince, in a study conducted at Chicago, investigated the nature of teachers', principals' and pupils' values in twenty-two high schools in and around the Chicago area (15). Using the Getzels rationale of the "sacred" and "secular" values as a basis, he constructed a Differential Values Inventory, which could measure values along the traditional and the emergent framework.

His findings substantiated the Spindler-Getzels thesis. Prince found that older teachers were indeed more traditional in their value patterns than were younger teachers, and that older principals were more traditional than were younger principals. These differential values had a definite effect on the teachers' description of the principal's behaviour.





Since the Prince study is central to this research, a more comprehensive report of his findings is presented in another section of this chapter.

### The Canadian Scene

Although the above observations were made of the American scene, it seems quite likely that they are tenable in major part, for Canada as well. A number of ties linking the two countries together have been outlined by Naegele (15). For geographic and economic reasons, many Canadian social, economic and labor organizations, all of which are major determinants of the Canadian culture, are "branches" of the parent organizations in the United States. This situation has led Naegele to conclude that Canada, although a country of greater caution, reserve and restraint than the United States, holds to the same values, and in general is undergoing value changes in the same direction (15, pp. 33-37).

Therefore, although Canadian culture may be characterized by more "hesitancy", and although there may be a "time-lag" in the changes between the two countries, the transformation is probably as real in one as it is in the other. This would suggest that our schools are characterized by the same "conflicts." The assumption at least seems justifiable.





The social systems model, presented in the first part of this chapter, may now be depicted with an added dimension as follows:

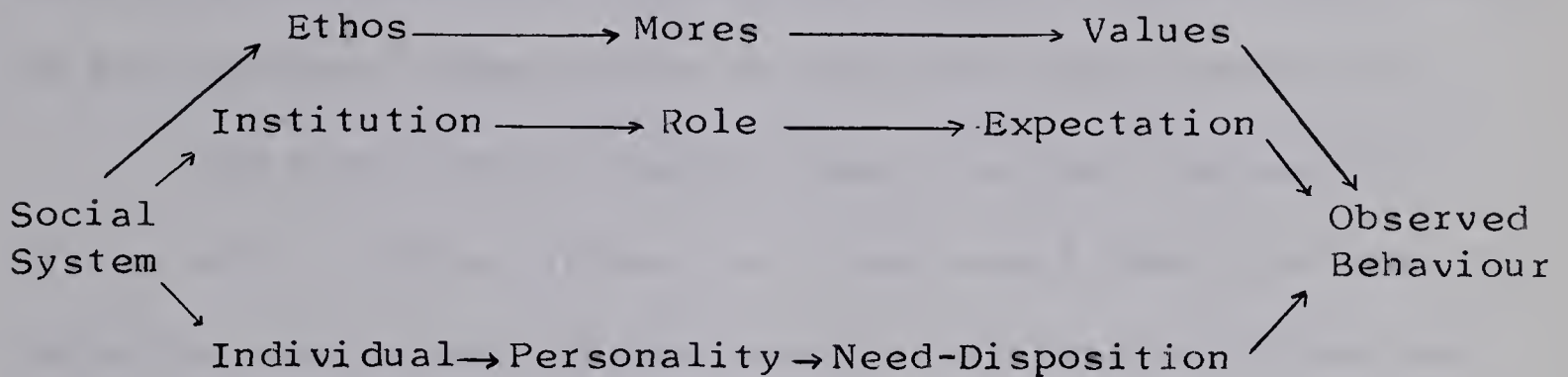


FIGURE III

#### EXTENDED MODEL SHOWING A THIRD DIMENSION OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

The model presents the school as a social system, made up of institutions, roles and role-expectations; all of which are embedded in a culture with certain mores and values. Also, these institutions embedded in a changing culture are inhabited by individuals, each with his own personality, largely conditioned by those values prevalent at the various stages of the transforming culture.

To summarize briefly, empirical evidence suggests that the principals and teachers in our schools, because of differences in their age and time of training, do hold to differential values. Since these values will influence perceptions, it is expected that they will be directly related to social



and administrative relationships in the schools. Indeed, the findings of Prince suggest that the differences in the values held by principals and teachers will have a significant effect on the teachers' description of the principal's behaviour.

The aim of this research was to extend the work of Prince and to delve further into the relationship between differential values and interpersonal relationships within our schools.

Value conflicts. Adhering to the Spindler-Getzels rationale which states that differential values in our schools do create conflicts and misunderstandings, one may expect two major types of conflict from the interaction of the role incumbents: (1) conflict resulting from a discrepancy between the values of the principal and his teachers, which we shall refer to as a lack of Value-Congruence; and (2) conflict resulting from a variation in the values of teachers, or lack of Value-Consonance. It is hypothesized that both Value-Congruence and Value-Consonance will relate to administrative and social interactions within the school.

The rationale for positing the above relationships is drawn from the findings of Prince, who found that congruence in values is directly related to the teachers' descriptions





of the principal's behaviour and from the findings of Stogdill who, after reviewing a number of studies on individual values and group affiliation, concluded that:

When individuals are free to choose, they appear to seek the companionship of persons whose values are similar to their own, and to join groups whose goals and activities tend to reinforce their own value systems (23, p. 76).

### Values and Social Behaviour

What appears to be a useful way of classifying interactions within a social system is to focus upon the source from which the interactions stem. For example, one might think of behaviour emphasizing "group achievement" as determined primarily by the behaviour of the leader, whereas "group maintenance" is observed primarily in the interactions of the group. This is not to deny any relationship between the two sources of interaction. That is, the behaviour of the principal will most probably be an influencing factor on the behaviour of the school staff. For instance, the teachers' perception of the principal's behaviour will have some bearing on the social life of the school. What is said is that the behaviour stems primarily from one source or another.

In a recent study, Halpin and Croft have devised an instrument The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire





(OCDQ), (10) which attempts to measure the "organizational climate" of a school in terms of eight dimensions or subtests.<sup>1</sup> The dimensions as defined by the authors are:

### Teachers' Behaviour

Disengagement refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it." This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions," a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkheim. In short, this subtest focusses upon the teachers' behaviour in a task-oriented situation.

Hindrance refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary busy-work. The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

Esprit refers to "morale." Under conditions of high Esprit, the teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

### Principal's Behaviour

Aloofness refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. A principal who is high in Aloofness "goes by the book" and prefers

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<sup>1</sup> The terms "dimensions" and "subtests" are used interchangeably throughout the remaining part of this chapter. The term "dimension" is not used, in any way, to imply statistical dimensionality.



to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself --at least, "emotionally" --at a distance from his staff.

Production Emphasis refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. A principal who is described as high in Production Emphasis is highly directive, and plays the role of a "straw boss." His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

Thrust refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization." "Thrust" behaviour is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teachers.

Consideration refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly," to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms (10, pp. 29-32).

The three basic factors by which the eight subtests may be defined are, "social needs," "esprit" and "social control." The "social needs" factor measures the extent to which individual social needs are met by the organization. The dimensions of "Intimacy" and "Consideration" secure high positive loadings on this factor. The "esprit" factor describes the extent to which group social needs are met.





"Esprit" and "Thrust" yield high positive loadings on this second factor, whereas "Disengagement" and "Hindrance" yield high negative loadings. Finally, "social control" measures behaviour emanating primarily from the principal as the group leader. It represents the tendency for the principal to direct and control the behaviour of his teachers. "Aloofness" and "Production Emphasis" secure high positive loadings on this factor.

The eight dimensions explained in terms of the three "higher" concepts or factors and in terms of locus of behaviour may be conveniently diagrammed as follows:

TABLE I

EIGHT DIMENSIONS OF THE OCDQ CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO  
SOURCE OF BEHAVIOUR AND ACCORDING TO  
THE THREE BASIC FACTORS

Test Factors	Locus of Behaviour		
	Group	Individuals	Leader
Factor I Social Needs Satisfaction		Intimacy Consideration	
Factor II Esprit	Esprit Thrust Disengagement Hindrance		
Factor III Social Control			Aloofness Production Emphasis





### Related Findings

It is appropriate here to review more specifically, some of the findings of Prince. Interestingly, Prince found that Value-Congruence was significantly related to the teachers' rating of the principal's effectiveness and the teachers' confidence in the principal's leadership, but not to "teacher satisfaction." An analysis of the test items used by Prince suggests that the "effectiveness" and "confidence" tests which he administered are clearly a measure of the teachers' perceptions of behaviour emanating primarily from the principal; whereas the "satisfaction" test is essentially a measure of staff characteristics.

These findings indicate that Value-Congruence, that is, similarity in values between the principal and his staff, although significantly related to administrative interactions, does not relate significantly to the social interactions within the group. It is expected that social behaviour attributable primarily to characteristics of the individuals within the group can better be understood in terms of Value-Consonance, that is, in terms of the variation in values among the individual group members.

A number of studies from the social sciences tend to support this hypothesis. For example, French conducted a



study in which he investigated the relative importance of friendship as compared to success in the choosing of working companions (5). His findings showed friendship to be more important than success. Fensterheim and Tresselt report that college students tend to show greater liking for those students whose values are perceived to most resemble their own (3). Smith found that subjects tended to prefer as work partners or companions the persons towards whom they projected their own values (22). Persons who were perceived as holding similar values were more highly accepted. The results of these studies lend support to the hypothesis that individuals favor social interaction with those persons who are perceived as holding similar values.

It was expected that the dimensions of social and administrative behaviour presented by Halpin and Croft, coupled with the findings of Prince and others, could open the door to a number of promising avenues. One would hypothesize, for instance, that Value-Consonance rather than Value-Congruence, will show a stronger relationship with those dimensions which secure high positive loadings on the "social needs" factor, whereas Value-Congruence will show higher correlation with those dimensions which secure high positive loadings on the "social control" factor.





This leaves the one factor of "esprit." Of the three factors tapped by the test, "esprit" reflects the greatest balance of interaction between the group and the leader. Halpin and Croft refer to this factor as a crude measure of "authenticity" in the behaviour of the principal and his staff (10, p. 75). Authentic behaviour is described as "genuine," "for real," and contrasted with "stereotyped" and "superficial" behaviour. The two dimensions securing high positive loadings on the "esprit" factor are "Thrust" and "Esprit." The authors suggest that "Thrust" provides an index to the "authenticity" of the principal's behaviour, whereas "Esprit," (the best single description of "morale"), provides an index to the "authenticity" of the group's behaviour. However, inasmuch as "Thrust" and "Esprit" show the highest positive correlation (.60) between any two of the eight dimensions, it is hypothesized that both Value-Congruence and Value-Consonance will correlate directly with either of the two dimensions. Conversely, it is hypothesized that Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence will correlate inversely with either "Disengagement" and "Hindrance," the latter two dimensions securing high negative loadings on the "esprit" factor.



In summary, the work of Prince and others, suggests that differential values may be significantly related to various aspects of social behaviour in the school. Whereas Prince investigated the relation of Value-Congruence to some administrative and social interactions, his findings and those of others mentioned in this chapter clearly show the need for investigating further other aspects of differential values and other aspects of organizational behaviour.

The work of Halpin and Croft seems particularly appropriate here. The social interaction between principal and teachers is described in terms of eight dimensions: Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, Intimacy, Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust and Consideration. These eight dimensions may be grouped into three basic or "higher order" concepts; "social needs," "esprit," and "social control," where the locus of behaviour resides primarily in the individuals, the group, and the leader respectively. On the basis of the Spindler-Getzels rationale, the Prince Study, and the findings of Stogdill on individual values and group affiliation it is hypothesized that:

- (1) Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence will both, in varying degree, show relation to interpersonal





behaviour within the school, and

- (2) The finer aspects of this relationship will depend to a considerable extent on whether the behaviour stems primarily from the principal or from the teachers.

Values and Organizational Climate. By comparing the profile scores for all schools in the sample, and by factor analysis, Halpin and Croft arrived at six different prototypes which can be viewed as six "Organizational School Climates." These "climates" were named and ranked in order from "Open" to "Closed." The "Organizational Climates" are in effect six prototypic profiles each with a specified set of the eight subtest scores. The profile of any particular school may be obtained by determining the approximation of its eight subtest scores to those of the six prototypes. The six "climates" are: Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed. Table II (See p. 44) presents the prototypic profiles for the six organizational climates as reported by Halpin and Croft. The authors by doing a certain amount of "reading into the data" describe the six climates as follows:





### The Open Climate

The Open Climate depicts a situation in which the members enjoy extremely high Esprit. The teachers work well together (low Disengagement). The principal's policies facilitate the teachers' accomplishment of their tasks (low Hindrance). The group members enjoy friendly relations with each other, but they apparently feel no need for an extremely high degree of Intimacy.

The behaviour of the principal represents an appropriate integration between his own personality and the role he is required to play as principal. He sets an example by working hard himself (high Thrust) and, goes out of his way to help a teacher (high Consideration). He is not aloof, nor are the rules and procedures which he sets up inflexible and impersonal. He has the ability to let appropriate leadership acts emerge from the teachers (low Production Emphasis). He is in full control of the situation and he clearly provides leadership for the staff.

### The Autonomous Climate

The distinguishing feature of this Organizational Climate is the almost complete freedom that the principal gives to teachers to provide their own structures-for-



interaction as well as to find ways within the group for satisfying their social needs. The scores lean slightly more toward social-needs satisfaction than toward task achievement (relatively high scores on Esprit and Intimacy). The teachers achieve their goals easily and quickly (low Disengagement). The teachers are not burdened by reports and administrative paper work (low Hindrance).

The principal runs the organization in a businesslike and a rather impersonal manner (high Aloofness). His leadership style favors the establishment of procedures and regulations which provide guidelines that the teachers can follow. He does not force people to produce. He appears satisfied to let the teachers work at their own speed (low Production Emphasis). On the whole, he is considerate and he attempts to satisfy the social needs of the teachers as well as most principals do (average Consideration). He provides Thrust for the organization by setting an example and by working hard himself.

### The Controlled Climate

The Controlled Climate is marked, above everything else, by a press for achievement at the expense of social-needs satisfaction. Teachers are there to get the job





done, and they expect to be told personally just how to do it (low Disengagement). There is an excessive amount of paper work and routine reports (high Hindrance).

Accordingly, teachers have little time to establish friendly social relations with each other (low Intimacy). Social isolation is common; there are few genuinely warm relations among the teachers. Esprit, however, is slightly above average.

The principal is described as dominating and directive. He allows little flexibility within the organization (high Production Emphasis). He is somewhat aloof. Since the principal's prime aim is to get the job done, he does not seek to satisfy the group's social needs (low Consideration). Nevertheless, he is trying to "move" the organization by working hard (average Thrust). He delegates few responsibilities. Leadership acts emanate chiefly from himself, rather than from the group.

### The Familiar Climate

The main feature of this climate is the conspicuously friendly manner of both the principal and the teachers. Social needs satisfaction is extremely high, while contrariwise, little is done to control or direct the group's



activities toward goal achievement. The teachers are disengaged and accomplish little in a task-oriented situation (high Disengagement). The principal makes it as easy as possible for the teachers to work (low Hindrance). The teachers have established personal friendships among themselves, and socially, at least, everyone is part of a big happy family (high Intimacy). The Esprit that is found in this climate is one-sided in that it stems almost entirely from a social-needs satisfaction.

The principal tries to be one of the group (high Consideration). He is not impersonal and official in his manner. Few rules and regulations are established (low Aloofness). The principal does little personally, to insure that the teachers are performing their tasks correctly (low Production Emphasis). Teachers do attribute Thrust to the principal. But in this context, this probably means that they regard him as a "good guy" who is interested in their welfare.

### The Paternal Climate

The Paternal Climate is characterized by the "ineffective" attempts of the principal to control the teachers as well as to satisfy their social needs. The teachers do





not work well together (high Disengagement). They are not burdened by routine reports, administrative duties and committee requirements, mainly because the principal does a great deal of busy work himself (low Hindrance). The teachers do not enjoy friendly relationships with each other (low Intimacy). This situation results in low Esprit since the teachers obtain inadequate satisfactions in respect to both task-accomplishment and social-needs.

The principal is the very opposite of aloof. He is so non-aloof that he becomes intrusive. He is always emphasizing the things that should be done (Production Emphasis), but somehow, very little does get done. His Consideration appears to be a means of satisfying his own social-needs rather than a genuine concern for the social-needs of others. Although he preserves an average degree of Thrust, as evidenced by his attempts to move the organization, he nonetheless fails to motivate the teachers.

### The Closed Climate

The Closed Climate marks a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task-achievement or social-needs. The teachers are disengaged and do not work well together; consequently





group achievement is minimal (high Disengagement). The principal does not facilitate the task-accomplishment of the teachers (high Hindrance). There is low job satisfaction and very little Esprit among teachers. They do, however, appear to obtain satisfaction from their friendly relations with other teachers (average Intimacy).

The principal is highly aloof and impersonal in controlling and directing the activities of the teachers (high Aloofness). He sets up rules and regulations about how things should be done and these rules are usually arbitrary (high Production Emphasis). The principal possesses little Thrust and does not motivate the teachers by setting a good example. He is not concerned with the social-needs of teachers (low Consideration). He expects everyone else to take the initiative, yet he does not give them the freedom required to perform whatever leadership acts are necessary (10, pp. 60-66).

The prototypic profile scores, standardized with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten are presented in Table II.

Inasmuch as the "Open" Climate scores high on "Esprit" and "Thrust," and low on "Disengagement," whereas the "Closed"



TABLE II

PROTOTYPIC PROFILES FOR SIX ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATES  
AS REPORTED BY HALPIN AND CROFT

Climates	Group's Characteristics				Leader's Characteristics			
	Disen- gage- ment	Hin- dra- nce	Es- prit	Inti- macy	Aloof- ness	Em- pha- sis	Thr- ust	Con- sider- ation
Open	43	43	63	50	42	43	61	55
Autonomous	40	41	55	62	61	39	53	50
Controlled	38	57	54	40	55	63	51	45
Familiar	60	42	50	58	44	37	52	59
Paternal	65	46	45	46	38	55	51	55
Closed	62	53	38	54	55	54	41	44

Climate scores inversely on these dimensions, it is expected that a relationship exists between the "openness" of a school climate and the differential values of the individuals inhabiting that school. The relationship becomes even more probable if the six climates were collapsed into three major groups: the first, composed of the first two relatively "Open" Climates; the second composed of the "Controlled" and "Familiar" Climates, each of which stresses only one of the two major organizational requirements (group maintenance or task accomplishment); and





the third, composed of the fifth and sixth climates, both of which are "Closed" (10, p. 60). The horizontal double lines in Table II were entered in order to note this distinction. By averaging the scores for each dimension, in each of the three groups, it becomes clear that all dimensions except "Intimacy" are either directly or inversely related to climate. "Intimacy" only shows a curvilinear relation. More specifically, average loadings in each of the three groups show "Esprit," "Aloofness," "Thrust," and "Consideration," to be directly related to "openness" of climate, whereas "Disengagement," "Hindrance," and "Production Emphasis," show an inverse relationship.

Related problems. As already stated in the previous chapter, this study is the first known to the investigator, to be undertaken in Canada, which attempts to examine the values of principals and teachers along the traditional-emergent framework. As such, it appears essential to test empirically the tenability of the Spindler-Getzels theory for Canadian schools. Are older principals in Canadian schools, in fact, more traditional than their younger counterparts? Are older teachers in these same schools more traditional than the younger ones?



It is interesting to note here that Anderson, after conducting a study which investigated the nature of values of a number of adolescents from Alberta schools, concluded that, "The Edmonton student is significantly less emergent and more traditional than his advertized American counterpart" (2). These findings of course substantiate the observations made by Naegele and quoted in an earlier part of the theoretical framework of this study, that the Canadian culture is characterized by more caution, reserve, and restraint, or is more traditional than that of our southern neighbours.

Another area which this study investigates is the relation between "traditional-oriented" or "emergent-oriented" behaviour and school climate. Stated differently, are the organizational climates characterized by highly traditional principals and staff significantly different from climates of schools where principals and teachers hold to more emergent values? Inasmuch as the main thesis of this study is that "value-differential" and not the nature of values as such will relate to school climate, it is hypothesized that no significant relationship will be found. Indeed as Prince himself states:





According to the data of the present study the teacher with emergent value patterns will have the most confidence in and deem most effective a principal who also possesses an emergent value pattern. And a teacher with a traditional value pattern will perceive a principal with a similar pattern as most effective, and the teacher will have confidence in his leadership (18, p. 142).

## II. A DEFINITION OF "VALUE"

This section is devoted to a discussion of the concept "value." Because of its importance within the theoretical framework outlined in Section I, this is considered essential. A number of definitions of value may be found in the literature. In a sense, it is quite likely that the number and variety of definitions has been the major cause of the dearth of research in this area. Doubtless, the variety of definitions stems from an attempt to define a concept which until recently was perceived to be so intangible and philosophical in nature as to defy empirical analysis.

### The Kluckhohn Definition

No attempt will be made to review these many definitions. The one presented by Clyde Kluckhohn, appears to incorporate all the essential aspects and at the same time remains serviceable. He states that, "A value is a conception explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or





characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action" (12, p. 395). Since this definition formed the basis for the construction of the values instrument used in this study, and since it likewise underlies the values framework of this study, a brief commentary on its salient aspects follows.

Concept of value. Values are not objects or things but rather ideas. They are hypothetical constructs in that they are not "things" but rather the criteria by which judgments of the satisfactory or unsatisfactory character of phenomena are made. Williams refers to them as "abstractions from the flux of the individuals' immediate experience" (27, p. 374). Florence Kluckhohn says that they are not directly observable because, "they are based upon what is said and done" (13, p. 5). Lepley suggests that the word "value" is not an entity in its own right but, "the word is adjectival, standing for a property or quality that belongs under specifiable conditions to a thing or a person having existence independently of being valued" (14, p. 395).

Explicit or Implicit values. This refers to the extent to which a person's own values are verbalized. In many



cases implicit values can only be inferred by an observer. Florence Kluckhohn equates this dimension of implicitness-explicitness with the "degree of awareness," ranging along a continuum from complete unawareness to total awareness (13, p. 5). In any case, the key concept here is "verbalizable." That is, values are always at the level of abstraction. In other words, although a particular value may be unknown to an individual (actor), it can be put into words by another individual (observer), and then agreed to or dissented to, by the actor.

Values distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group. There is little doubt that the line between group values<sup>2</sup> and individual values is a very elusive one. Yet we know of the teacher who finds himself in a school situation where the dominant values of the staff are conflicting with his own. Presthus writes of the "ambivalent" whose aims conflict with those of the organization. Because of his inability to identify with the organizational goals, he finds

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<sup>2</sup>"Group values" is used synonymously with both "cultural values" and "social values." The technical difference does not concern us here. For our purposes, and in keeping with the definition, we are merely concerned with values pertaining to "one" or to "many."





himself at an impasse (17).

According to Williams it is important to make the distinction between "shared value" and "group value." "Getting ahead" might be a value shared by a number of individuals. On the other hand, "military security" is more likely to be a value for the group taken collectively. A group goal is defined as "a future state of affairs intended to be reached by group (collective) action." (Intended means either implicitly stated or inferred by an observer.) "Thus a group goal," concludes Williams, "is not necessarily identical or even congruent with the values, motives, or goals of individual members considered distributively" (27, p. 382).

Desirable. Values as a guide to human behaviour become the "normative standards" for the individual or the group. The key words are "right," "wrong," "better," "worse," and "should." Since "the desirable" is often confused with "the desired," a brief explanation follows.

Values are always desirable and are acquired over a period of time. An object may be desired but not desirable. Persons are frequently attracted to a disvalued thing. On warm summer days, Mr. Jones, the principal, is strongly tempted to ignore the rigid standards of dress for the school



in favor of sports clothes. The converse is also true: Mary Smith, the mathematics teacher, works an extra hour Friday afternoon helping Johnny with his arithmetic homework when, (apart from the value element) she would strongly prefer to use the time for shopping. Kluckhohn claims that the desired which is disvalued is that which is incompatible with the personality as a system or with the society or culture as systems.

Values influence selection. Kluckhohn has accepted "selection" as a more neutral word than "choice." There is no need, as he suggests, to beg any metaphysical questions regarding "free will" or "determinism." For our purposes, the statements "the actor can choose" and "the actor behaves in some respects as if he had the possibility of choice," must be considered equivalent. Says Kluckhohn:

In any case the matter at issue here is clear-cut; as the observer sees behaviour, the actor or actors have open in the observable world more than one mode, or means, or direction of action, each of which is objectively open (12, p. 401).

In summary, we might say that a value has a conceptual element; it is no more observable than is "culture." Rather, it is a property or a quality that belongs to a thing or a person. Many times the more general values are unknown to





the persons who hold them; whereas the more immediate values are usually more obvious. Values are not the concrete goals of action but rather the criteria by which goals are chosen; hence they influence the selection. Values are important, not trivial or of slight concern. Finally values are operative when an individual selects object A rather than object B or method A rather than method B. Values are operative if and when this selection is influenced "by generalized codes rather than determined simply by impulse or by a purely rational calculus of temporary expedience" (12, p. 402).

### III. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Selective Interpersonal Perception. This concept refers to the perception by complementary role incumbents of the same prescribed relationship. In this study the complementary role incumbents include principals and teachers. The prescribed relationships will refer to those involving principal and teachers, and, those among teachers.

Values. In this study, Kluckhohn's definition shall be used. "A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes,





means and ends of action." The nature of a person's values will refer to his raw score on the Differential Values Inventory.

Principal's Values. The principal's raw score on the Differential Values Inventory.

Teachers' Values. A score derived by finding the mean of all the raw scores on the Differential Values Inventory obtained by the teachers from any one school.

Value-Congruence. This is a score of similarity between the principal's values and the teachers' values in any one school. It is derived by finding the absolute difference between principal's values and mean teachers' values.

Value-Consonance. This is a score of variation among teachers' values in any one school. It is derived by finding the variance of teachers' values in any one school. The smaller the variance the greater the Consonance.

The Organizational Climate of a School. This is one of the six prototypic profiles ranging from open to closed as outlined on page 31 of this study and as measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

The Organizational Climate Dimensions. These are the eight dimensions describing either the principal's or the



teachers' behaviour as defined on pages 38-43 of this study and as measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

Value Conflict. This term is used to describe that situation which exists when individuals in any one school hold to different values. The value conflict with which this study is most concerned is that which stems from the differences between the values held by the principal and those of his staff, and differences among the values held by staff members.

#### IV. HYPOTHESES

##### Hypothesis One

- I.I. There will be a direct relationship between each of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Intimacy and Consideration.
- I.II. Because Intimacy and Consideration are dimensions of individual "social needs," Consonance in values will show a stronger relationship to Intimacy and Consideration than will Congruence.

The notion that individuals who are free to choose appear to seek the companionship of persons whose values are similar to their own seems to warrant investigation. Staff members are normally not given the option of selecting their teaching companions. However, it is expected that if





there is a lack of Value-Consonance in the staff, its effects will be manifested primarily in those dimensions which purport to be a measure of "social needs," or of behaviour emanating primarily from the staff.

### Hypothesis Two

- II.I. There will be an inverse relationship between each of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Aloofness and Production Emphasis.
- II.II. Because Aloofness and Production Emphasis are dimensions of "social control," Congruence in values will show a stronger relationship to aloofness and Production Emphasis than will Consonance.

Inasmuch as Aloofness and Production Emphasis are dimensions of behaviour emanating primarily from the principal, it is expected that Value-Congruence will show the stronger relation. This especially so, when one considers that scores on these two dimensions of principal behaviour are determined totally by his staff. In other words, the OCDQ assumes that how a principal "really" behaves is not as important as how he is perceived to behave by his staff because ultimately, it is their perception of his behaviour that will determine the behaviour of the group members.

### Hypothesis Three

- III. There will be a direct relationship between Value-Congruence and Value-Consonance and the two dimensions of Esprit and Thrust.



Although Esprit is primarily a group characteristic, whereas Thrust is a measure of principal behaviour, Halpin and Croft and again Andrews, reported high positive correlations between the two. The principal's ability to motivate the staff by his example may create good morale among the teachers.

#### Hypothesis Four

- IV. There will be an inverse relationship between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Disengagement and Hindrance.

This hypothesis derived from the fact that in previous studies both Disengagement and Hindrance yield high negative loadings on the "esprit" factor. Moreover, in the Andrews study these two dimensions showed a high positive correlation.

#### Hypothesis Five

- V. There will be a direct relationship between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the "openness" of the Organizational Climate.

Since the Open climate scores high on Esprit and Thrust and low on Disengagement, whereas the Closed climate scores inversely on these dimensions, the relationship between similarity of values and the "openness" of climate follows from Hypothesis One to Four.





### Hypothesis Six

- VI. There will be no significant relationships between "traditional-oriented" behaviour or "emergent-oriented" behaviour and the "openness" of Organizational Climate.

This hypothesis evolves from the basic underlying theory of this study that it is the "value-differential" and not the nature of values as such which will relate to the social behaviour of individuals in a school, and consequently, to its Organizational Climate.

Prince, for instance, concluded that teachers with emergent value patterns will have the most confidence in and deem most effective a principal who also possesses an emergent value pattern. Similarly, teachers with traditional value patterns will perceive a principal with a similar value pattern as most effective, and these teachers will have confidence in his leadership.

On the basis of this conclusion therefore, and since the Organizational Climate of a school is established largely by the interactions between the principal and his staff, it is expected that the similarity or dissimilarity in values between the principal and his staff, and not the extent to which they hold to traditional or emergent values, will relate to the Organizational Climate of a particular school.





### Hypothesis Seven

- VII. Older principals in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger principals.

Extending to the school those observations made by Naegele of the Canadian society, the Canadian principal is expected to score more traditionally than his American counterpart. However, because of what appears to be a similar cultural transformation in the two countries, it is expected that the "value-differential" between older and younger principals will approximate the findings of Prince.

### Hypothesis Eight

- VIII. Older teachers in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger teachers.

For similar reasons, the differential between younger and older teachers in Canadian schools is expected to approximate the value differential found by Prince.



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## CHAPTER III

### RELATED RESEARCH

Much of the research related to this study has already been presented within the theoretical framework of the preceding chapter. The three major pieces of research that are reported here are those which are central to the basic problem and to the sub-problem of this study. It will be noted that because of their major significance to the present study, they are dealt with more comprehensively than are other related studies which have already been presented.

#### The Prince Study

The central piece of research around which this study is built was reported by Richard Prince (5) in 1957. Prince was concerned with the difficult task facing the principal in attempting to work with individuals who hold differing values. Although many studies of administrative effectiveness had been reported, none had dealt with differential values as an influential factor.

The study was based on the theory that there is a relationship between the extent of agreement in values held by principals, teachers and students, and the degree of





effectiveness, satisfaction and confidence in leadership found in the school. From this main theory four questions were advanced for investigation. Three of the four, pertinent to this study, and as stated by Prince are:

1. What is the nature of teachers' values?
2. What is the nature of principals' values?
3. What is the relationship between the extent of agreement of principals' and teachers' values and the teachers' confidence in the principals' effectiveness, and the principals' rating of the teachers' effectiveness?

In order to study values, Prince developed the Differential Values Inventory, by which values could be measured and changes from traditional to emergent values indicated. Using the Getzels framework of the traditional-emergent value structure, sixty-four forced-choice items were developed to determine whether an individual holds to the traditional or to the emergent set of values. The information relevant to the validity and reliability of the Differential Values Instrument is provided in the next chapter of this thesis. However, Prince's findings provide some interesting directions for further research using the Differential Values Inventory.



When applied to twenty principals, 100 teachers, 602 seniors, and 591 freshmen from twenty-two high schools each with enrolments ranging between 500-1000 students, the following findings were reported:

1. Older teachers were more traditional in their value patterns than younger teachers.
2. Older principals were more traditional in their value patterns than younger principals.
3. (a) There was a significant relationship between principals' and teachers' values and the teachers' confidence in leadership and the teachers' rating of the principals effectiveness, and (b) there was no significant relationship either between value-congruence and teacher satisfaction or between value-congruence and the principals' rating of the teacher's effectiveness.

In summary, Prince's research indicates that:

1. His Differential Values Inventory is a useful instrument for measuring values in terms of the traditional-emergent framework.
2. There is need for application of the Inventory to other aspects of organizational behaviour.





3. The investigation of other aspects of differential values, such as variations in values among staff, may provide some fruitful results.

### The Abbott Study

Abbott was interested in the relation of values and value perceptions to superintendent-school board relationships (1). The study was based on two major hypotheses:

1. An individual's own values were expected to influence his perceptions of the values held by others; and,
2. Both an individual's values and his value-perceptions were expected to influence his relationship with others.

Using the Differential Values Inventory, and a Confidence-in-Leadership Scale, Abbott tested twenty-seven superintendents, 213 board members from twenty-seven elementary districts, five high school districts, and eight unit districts all located in the Midwest United States. The following findings were made:

1. An individual's own values had an important influence upon his perceptions of the values held by others; and,
2. The values held by individuals had an important influence upon the kinds of perceptual errors made. When



the values of the perceiver and the perceived were similar, errors tended to be random. When the values of the perceiver and the perceived were dissimilar, errors followed a systematic pattern and tended to move in the direction of the perceiver's own value position with a frequency that was significantly greater than would have been expected to occur by chance.

Abbott also confirmed some of Prince's findings on the relationship between values and confidence in leadership. Board members whose values were most similar to those of their superintendents expressed slightly higher confidence in those superintendents, than did board members whose values were least similar. Also, board members were found to hold more traditional values than did superintendents of schools.

However, in contrast to some other findings, Abbott found that older superintendents were more emergent in their values than were the younger superintendents.

In summary, Abbott's research indicates that:

1. The concept of "selective interpersonal perception" is most important in understanding administrative relationships; and,
2. An individual's own values have an important influence upon his perceptions.





## The Alberta Study on Organizational Climate<sup>1</sup>

This study comprised 165 Alberta schools whose principals registered for a weekend clinic on school organizational climate. Since the OCDQ was a new instrument and as such, had been subjected to very little external validation since its development, three rating scales were added at the end of the instrument. The scales measured Teacher Satisfaction, Rated Principal Effectiveness and Rated School Effectiveness by means of six point Likert-type scales. The stems of the scales were:

1. How well satisfied are you with all aspects of your teaching situation in your present school? The respondents were asked to make one of six choices ranging from enthusiastic to very dissatisfied.
2. How effective do you consider your principal to be in performing all the various functions which he should perform? The choices ranged from outstanding to very poor.

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<sup>1</sup>The information which follows is drawn from a paper entitled "Some Validity Studies of the OCDQ" delivered by John H.M. Andrews at the Conference of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, February 10, 1965. Dr. Andrews was director of the Organizational Climate Study held in Alberta schools.





3. Compared to other schools you know, how good a job do you judge your school does in educating the students who come to it? Here again, the choices ranged from outstanding to very poor.

Relationship with the rating scales. The study revealed that all three scales showed a strong positive and significant relationship to climate. Teacher Satisfaction and Rated School Effectiveness both showed an even stronger positive relationship to Esprit, whereas Rated Principal Effectiveness showed a stronger positive relation to Thrust. In all cases, relationships were in the expected direction.

Organizational Climate and school achievement. The relationship of OCDQ scores with achievement was investigated by making use of the Alberta Department of Education Examinations which are given to all Grade Nine students in the province. The effects of academic ability, measured by the SCAT,<sup>2</sup> were removed statistically. The results showed that Intimacy only related significantly to achievement. All other dimensions, including climate itself, showed little or no relation.

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<sup>2</sup>Cooperative School and College Ability tests.



The more specific findings of this study, such as the percentage of variation in achievement scores tapped by the OCDQ subtests will not be examined here. Suffice it to say that, the absence of a strong positive relationship between achievement and the dimensions of Thrust, Esprit and Production Emphasis was unexpected. On the other hand, in view of the findings of Greenfield (3) that sixty-eight percent of the variance in pupil achievement is associated with pupils within classes (e.g. ability, motivation, socio-economic status, etc.) an area not tapped by the OCDQ, the results were credible.

Organizational Climate and Staff characteristics. The eight climate scores were correlated with certain characteristics of school staffs. Andrews found that Disengagement, Hindrance, Intimacy and Production Emphasis relate positively to each of, median grade level, number of teachers, years of training and percentage of male teachers in any one school. Esprit, Aloofness and Thrust on the other hand, relate inversely to the same variables.

Organizational Climate and leader behaviour. As part of a sub-study, Schmidt (6) investigated the relationship between leader behaviour and the organizational climate dimensions.





The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ, XII) describes leader behaviour in terms of twelve dimensions. A definition of the dimensions or a detailed description of the findings will not be presented here. However, the findings indicated that twenty-seven pairs of relationships between subtests from each of the two instruments were significantly correlated, twenty-one of which were related to the three OCDQ subtests of Production Emphasis, Thrust and Esprit.

Organizational Climate and principals' personality.

In another sub-study, Plaxton (4) investigated the relationship between the personality of the principal as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the OCDQ. No relationship was found between the principal's personality type and climate. However, a number of significant differences were found between personality type and OCDQ subtests. For instance, all subtests except Production Emphasis showed significant F ratios across the eleven personality types.

In summary, the work of Andrews and others indicates that:

1. The OCDQ is a useful instrument to measure a number of important aspects of social behaviour.



2. The subtests tapped by OCDQ when tested for their construct validity have, in most cases, proven to be consistent with established theory.

This chapter has presented the research directly related to this study. The following chapter will deal with the research methodology.



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## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### I. INSTRUMENTATION

##### The General Questionnaire

The General Questionnaire which appears in Appendix A was constructed especially for this study. It consists of a number of factual items. Teachers were asked to indicate their age, sex, years of teaching experience and number of years in their present school. Principals and vice-principals were asked similar questions relating to their positions. Although there is no statistical evidence for the degree of validity or reliability of the instrument, it is believed that the factual nature of the items coupled with the assurance of complete anonymity, provide an acceptable degree of face validity.

Purposes of the questionnaire. The General Questionnaire provides the information required to test hypotheses relating to the nature of values of principals and teachers in the sample.



### The Differential Values Inventory (DVI)

The Differential Values Inventory was devised by Richard Prince (7) at the Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago. The DVI is designed to test values in the traditional-emergent framework as presented by Getzels.

The eight value categories are:

<u>Traditional</u>	<u>Emergent</u>
1. Moral Commitment	1. Sociability
2. Work-Success Ethic	2. Relativistic Moral Attitude
3. Individualism	3. Conformity
4. Future-Time Orientation	4. Present-Time Orientation

The DVI consists of sixty-four pairs of forced-choice items, representing each of the eight value categories. There are sixteen items representing each of the eight values.

Validity and reliability. The DVI has been used on a number of occasions, and appears to have an acceptable degree of construct validity. In all cases it has tended to support the theory underlying it.

Originally, the instrument was checked for validity and internal consistency by the Shanner method of item analysis. The graphic item analyzer, on which the Shanner method is





based, considers two factors: (1) the difficulty or the proportion of bias of each item; and (2) discrimination. After three pilot studies, and after discarding all items not able to stand the test, Prince designed the instrument in its then final form.

The DVI has undergone slight revision since its use in the Prince Study. Because the instrument had been devised primarily for a student group, McPhee (5) and subsequently Abbott (1) subjected it to further tests in an attempt to establish its validity for an adult group. Items which failed to discriminate at .05 level as determined by the phi coefficient estimated from "Guilford's abac" were rejected and replaced.

Scoring the DVI. The DVI is scored by giving a score of one for each traditional item selected. Theoretically, therefore, a person's score may range from zero (most emergent) to sixty-four (most traditional).

#### The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)

This instrument consists of sixty-four items falling into eight categories, or subtests. Four describe the principal's behaviour in terms of Aloofness, Production Emphasis,



Thrust and Consideration; four describe the teachers' behaviour in terms of Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit and Intimacy (cf. ante pp. 30-31). By standardizing the scores for the seventy-one schools across the sample (normative standardization) and again across subtests for each school (ipsative standardization) in the original study by Halpin and Croft, and by factor analysis, six prototypic profiles or "school climates" were established. The climates were then ranked along a continuum from "Open" to "Closed" (cf. ante p. 44).

Validity and reliability. The eight dimensions were subjected to tests of internal consistency and equivalence in three different ways. The first was the split-half coefficient corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. Second, since the focal concern in this test is with the teachers' perception of the principal's and staff's characteristics, Halpin and Croft decided that a more appropriate method "was to compute the correlation subtest by subtest, between the description of the climate given by the odd-numbered teachers and that given by the even-numbered teachers" (4, p. 48). A third estimate was secured from the test score communalities that were computed from the three factor rotational solution for the eight subtests. These three methods of determining





the reliability of the OCDQ are presented in Table III.

TABLE III

ESTIMATES OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY AND OF EQUIVALENCE  
FOR THE EIGHT OCDQ SUBTESTS AS REPORTED  
BY HALPIN AND CROFT

	Split-half Coefficient of reliabil- ity, Correct- ed by the Spearman- Brown Formula. <sup>a</sup> (N=1151)	Correlation between Scores of Odd-Numbered and the Even- Numbered Re- spondents in each school. <sup>b</sup> (N=71)	Communality Estimates <sup>c</sup> for Three Factor Rotational Solution. (N=1151)
1. Disengagement	.73	.59	.66
2. Hindrance	.68	.54	.44
3. Esprit	.75	.61	.73
4. Intimacy	.60	.49	.53
5. Aloofness	.26	.76	.72
6. Prod. Emph.	.55	.73	.53
7. Thrust	.84	.75	.68
8. Consideration	.59	.63	.64

<sup>a</sup>Estimate of internal consistency.

<sup>b</sup>Estimate of equivalence.

<sup>c</sup>These are lower-bound, conservative estimates of equivalence.





All evidence of validity and reliability presented thus far have been attained from tests of internal consistency of the OCDQ. What is perhaps more important is that the instrument possess an acceptable degree of validity when the scores of the instrument are checked against "external criteria." The only large-scale report on the construct validity of the OCDQ which was available to the investigator, is based on the Andrews Study (2) referred to in the related research section of the preceding chapter.

The results from the study led Andrews to conclude that "the subtests of the Organizational Climate Questionnaire provide reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the leadership of the school principal in a perspective of interaction with his staff" (2, p. 38).

## II. COLLECTION OF THE DATA

### Procedures

Permission was obtained from the directors of the respective school boards to make use of the schools for the purposes of the study.

Contact for each school was made through the principal whose cooperation to involve his school was sought. If



permission was granted, arrangements were made to have all questionnaires delivered personally to the school. At the time of delivery, further arrangements were made for collecting the instruments. Whatever questionnaires had not been completed at the time of collection were returned by mail.

The cooperating school was given the following set of materials for each teacher: (1) a guide for the completion of the instruments used in the study; (2) a General Questionnaire; (3) the Differential Values Inventory; (4) the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Principals and vice-principals were given the same materials except for the OCDQ. Each set of instruments was presented in a separate envelope.

Each teacher and principal was asked to seal his envelope containing the completed instruments and return it to the "key" teacher, who in turn assumed the responsibility for returning to the investigator all envelopes from his school. In all cases, the principal and teachers remained completely anonymous.

### The Sample

The sample consisted of all English Catholic elementary schools in the Greater Montreal area which included a minimum of five full-time teachers and a principal or vice-





principal in charge.

Some of the schools operated by one of the boards in the sample have annexes (separate buildings) which are under the jurisdiction of the principal in charge of the "main" school. It was important to obtain information regarding these schools. Normally, the principal of a school with one or more annexes to it, is aided by a vice-principal. Whereas some principals spend most of their time in the main school and assign the annex to their assistant, others favor dividing their time equally between the schools. For the purposes of this study it was decided that all annexes with five classrooms or more would be considered as separate schools. The administrator for any one of these annexes was considered to be the principal of the main school or his vice-principal, if the latter spent more than fifty percent of his time there.

The potential sample consisted of eight-four schools of which eighty-one cooperated in the study. Sixty-eight administrators reported their status as principal, nine as vice-principal and four did not answer. Because there were other vital questions which were left unanswered by either the principals or the teachers of these four schools, they were excluded from the study. The number of included schools was,



therefore, seventy-seven.

Table IV presents the number of questionnaires distributed and completed by size of school. Out of a possible 993 teacher respondents, 854 completed the questionnaires.

TABLE IV  
NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED AND  
COMPLETED BY SIZE OF SCHOOL

Number of Teachers per school	Number of Schools	Questionnaires Distributed	Questionnaires Returned
5	1	5	2
6	4	24	23
7	7	49	44
8	12	96	90
9	6	54	49
10	5	50	48
11	8	88	78
12	4	48	41
13	4	52	40
14	11	154	141
15	3	45	40
16	3	48	42
17	3	51	43
19	1	19	13
20	2	40	26
21	2	42	36
22	2	44	41
25	1	25	22
28	1	28	23
31	1	31	22
Totals	81	993	854



Of those who answered, approximately ten percent failed to answer one or more of the questions from the General Questionnaire which related to personal characteristics. Although it may be thought that with the assurance of complete anonymity this figure is somewhat high, it can be understood when one realizes that this is probably the first major research study in which these teachers and principals have been asked to participate actively.

In summary, ninety-six percent of the schools, ninety-one percent of the principals, and eighty-six percent of the teachers cooperated in the study.

Characteristics of the respondents. Table V presents a number of selected characteristics of the respondents. Eighty-three percent of the teacher respondents were female. Two-thirds of all teachers are under thirty years old, and approximately fifty-six percent of those who responded have five or less years of experience. Fifty percent have been in the present school two years or less.

Two-thirds of the principals were male, between the ages of forty and sixty years old. Almost fifty percent have five or less years of experience as administrators, and approximately eighty percent have less than ten years. It is also





TABLE V

## SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

		Teachers N=854	Principals N=81
Sex	Male	127	51
	Female	647	26
	Not Stated	80	4
Age	UNDER 20	75	
	20 - 29	429	4
	30 - 39	66	14
	40 - 49	70	23
	50 - 59	107	24
	OVER 59	15	5
	Not Stated	92	11
Experience	YEARS		
	2 or less	161	19
	3 - 5	264	16
	6 - 10	147	23
	11 - 15	52	10
	16 - 20	41	3
	21 - 25	48	2
	26 - 30	34	0
	OVER 30	11	1
	Not Stated	96	7
Years in Present School	YEARS		
	2 or less	388	39
	3 - 5	226	20
	6 - 10	84	11
	11 - 15	35	4
	16 - 20	8	0
	OVER 20	21	0
	Not Stated	92	7



noteworthy that more than fifty percent have been in the present school two years or less.

The fact that over one-half of the principals have been in the present school for no longer than two years stems from at least one or possibly two major reasons. The rapidly expanding Montreal school systems has necessitated an inordinate number of recent appointments and a reorganization of administrative personnel. Secondly, there may be a general, though unwritten policy on the part of the boards to move administrative personnel about periodically.

### III. PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Scoring. The first step in processing the data was to transfer all individual responses from the questionnaires to IBM cards. Two cards for each teacher were used; one for his responses on the DVI and a second card for his responses on the OCDQ and General Questionnaire. Since principals did not complete the OCDQ, only one card was used for each principal.

Scoring of both instruments was done by computer programs. Two Fortran programs were written for the IBM computer 7040 at the University of Alberta.<sup>1</sup> The output matrix

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<sup>1</sup>Both programs were written by Carl Daneliuk, Department of Educational Administration, University of Alberta.





for the DVI program included the following: (1) the score for every teacher on each of the DVI subtests, (2) a global score for all teachers on all DVI subtests, and (3) the standard deviation and variance for each school on all subtests and on the total score. Principals' cards were similarly processed.

The matrix for the OCDQ program included essentially three distinct sets of information used in the study. The first part of the data was a profile for each school, based on the subtest scores, standardized normatively (over all schools), with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten. Included also, was a second profile for each school based on subtest scores, standardized ipsatively (within each school) also with a mean of fifty and a standard deviation of ten. Finally, included in the matrix was the Organizational Climate classification of each school based on the approximation of the subtest scores (standardized both normatively and ipsatively) to the scores of each of the prototypic profiles established by Halpin and Croft and presented in Chapter II of this study.



Preliminary analysis. At this point the data from the output matrices which were required for testing hypotheses and for investigating related matters was transferred to another set of IBM cards. The following information was recorded for each school; the standard deviation and variance of values scores, the mean global values score, the principal's values score, the Value-Congruence score, the Organizational Climate score, the mean age for all teachers, mean number of years of teaching experience, mean number of years in the present school, number of teachers, number of respondents and a score for each of the OCDQ subtests. In all, a total of nineteen variables were recorded.

The nineteen variables were intercorrelated by means of a third Fortran program.<sup>2</sup> After a careful study of the intercorrelation matrix, it was decided that further analysis should be made. Schools were re-grouped into various typologies, based on Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence scores and an analysis of variance test was applied.

Final analysis. The results suggested that once again,

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<sup>2</sup>This program was written by S. Hunka, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta.





it was necessary to probe further. The schools were regrouped according to value scores on the DVI subtests rather than the global score. In order to do this, another deck of school cards was punched, adding the following twelve variables: the teachers' mean value score on each subtest of the DVI (4 variables); the principal's value score on the same subtests (4 variables) and a Value-Congruence score for each of the subtests (4 variables). A number of "t" tests were required in order to investigate the possible relationships between value subscores and climate subtests. In order to obtain the values of the "t" tests, a final Fortran program was used.<sup>3</sup>

In conclusion therefore, four Fortran programs for the IBM 7040 computer were used. Two programs served for scoring the instruments, one for intercorrelations of thirty-one variables, among school scores, and one program for the application of a number of "t" tests. The results of this analysis are reported in Chapters V and VI of this study.

#### Distribution of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence Scores.

The Value-Consonance score for a particular school

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<sup>3</sup>This program was written by Walter Muir, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Alberta.





represents the degree of similarity in the values held by the staff members. The Consonance score is derived by finding the variance of all teachers' scores on the DVI for each of the schools in the sample. A high Consonance score, therefore, indicates a lower degree of similarity in the values of the teachers in any particular school. The Consonance scores ranged from 5.867 (highest Consonance) to 139.367 (lowest Consonance), with fifty-seven percent of the schools falling between the forty to eighty-nine range.

The Value-Congruence score for a particular school represents the degree of similarity between the values held by the principal and those of the staff. The Congruence score was derived by finding the absolute difference between the principal's score on the DVI and the mean teachers' score on the same instrument. A high Congruence score, therefore, indicates a lower degree of agreement between the values of the principal and those of his staff. The scores ranged from .286 (highest Congruence) to 21.182 (lowest Congruence), with eighty percent of the scores falling between the zero to nine range. The distributions of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence scores are presented in Table VI.



TABLE VI  
DISTRIBUTION OF VALUE-CONSONANCE AND  
VALUE-CONGRUENCE SCORES

Value Consonance	N	Value Congruence	N
0 - 9	3	0 - 1	18
10 - 19	4	2 - 3	9
20 - 29	6	4 - 5	16
30 - 39	11	6 - 7	9
40 - 49	14	8 - 9	9
50 - 59	10	10 - 11	4
60 - 69	10	12 - 13	6
70 - 79	5	14 - 15	4
80 - 89	6	16 - 17	0
90 - 99	3	18 - 19	1
100 - 109	1	20 - 21	1
110 - 119	5	22 - 23	0
over 119	1	over 23	0
TOTAL	79		77





### Intercorrelations Among Values Subscores

In order to find the relationships among the DVI subtest scores, the teachers' scores on each of the value subtests were intercorrelated. Since this involved transferring the required data to another set of IBM cards, a random sample of 150 respondents was chosen from the 854 teachers who participated in the study. The results of the intercorrelations are presented in Table VII. To the knowledge of the writer, this is the first time that intercorrelations of the DVI subscores have been reported. All tests applied by Prince, McPhee and Abbott in their respective studies are based on total scores only.

TABLE VII

INTERCORRELATION OF DIFFERENTIAL VALUES SUBTESTS  
N=150

Subtests	Work Success	Future Time	Indep- endence	Moral Commit.
Work Success	---	.36*	.24*	.27*
Future Time		---	.17	.28*
Independence			---	.27*
Moral Commit.				---

\*Significant at .05 level.



It may be noted that since the DVI is scored by giving a raw score of one for each traditional item chosen, only the four traditional values of, Work-Success Ethic, Future-Time Orientation, Independence and Moral Commitment appear in the matrix.

Findings. All subtests are positively correlated with each other. All correlations except one (Future-Time, Independence) are statistically significant.

Discussion. Since each of these subscales purports to measure one selective aspect of "traditionalism" it is desirable that the interrelations be positive. Inasmuch as true dimensionality is not claimed, it is desirable that the degree of relationship among the subscales be reasonable and consistent with the definition of the concepts.

The first criterion, that of direction of the relationships, is met. This additive feature of the instrument is taken to represent the amount of the attribute (traditionalism) which the respondent possesses. One might reasonably conclude, therefore, that the values which appear in Table VII are each contributing to, and form part of, one global concept -- "traditionalism."





The second criterion, that of degree of relationship, is also met. In no instance is the variance common to any two scales greater than fifteen percent. This tends to make the scales unidimensional in nature. That is, although they are not completely independent of each other, the common variance is small enough to suggest that each scale is measuring a "different" value. Moreover, since the range of common variance between scales is fairly consistent among all pairs, the contribution of each scale to the total score should be relatively uniform.

#### Interrelationships Between Subscores and Total Value Scores

Findings. In order to determine the extent to which each subscore contributes to the total value score, the appropriate correlations were obtained and are presented in Table VIII. As expected from the above findings, all scales

TABLE VIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL VALUES SCORE  
AND VALUES SUBTEST SCORES (N=150)

	Work Success	Future Time	Indep- endence	Moral Commit.
Total Values Score	.67*	.73*	.59*	.65*

\*Significant at .05 level





are positively and quite consistently correlated with the total score.

Discussion. The relatively large correlation coefficients between each subtest score and the total score is understandable in that the total values score is composed of subscale scores. Inasmuch as no less than thirty-five percent of the variance is common between the total score and any one subscale, the homogeneity and indicated validity of the DVI is considered satisfactory.

#### Intercorrelations Among OCDQ Subtests

In order to find the relationship among the subtests of the OCDQ, all the normatively standardized subscores for each school were intercorrelated. Table IX presents the intercorrelation matrix of the eight subtests.

Findings. Fourteen of a possible twenty-eight coefficients were significantly different from zero. In all cases the significant relationships were in the expected directions.

Discussion. It might be noted that, but for one exception, the matrix for this sample is of the same order as



TABLE IX

INTERCORRELATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL  
CLIMATE DIMENSIONS (N=77)

Dimensions	Dis.	Hin.	Esp.	Int.	Al.	P.E.	Th.	Con.
Disengagement	--	.18	-.42*	-.06	.02	.08	-.20	.03
Hindrance		--	-.28*	-.17	.37*	.13	-.55*	-.29*
Esprit			--	.48*	-.13	.01	.48*	.35*
Intimacy				--	-.33*	-.07	.23*	.31*
Aloofness					--	.47*	-.19	-.24*
Prod. Emph.						--	.04	.15
Thrust							--	.63*
Consideration								--

\*Significant at .05 level.

the matrices reported by both Halpin and Croft and by Andrews. In the Andrews study, Production Emphasis and Intimacy showed a positive and significant correlation. Although on the face of it, this relationship seemed quite puzzling, Andrews argued that close supervision involved in Production Emphasis could, quite conceivably, be interpreted by the staff as an internal threat, resulting in increased cohesiveness (2, p. 17). Inasmuch as the relationship between these two subtests as reported by Halpin and Croft and again in the present study, was





not significant, and since only in the Andrews study were schools other than elementary included,<sup>4</sup> one might reasonably conclude that close supervision and the resulting cohesive behaviour of the staff is more characteristic of social behaviour in the larger high schools than in the relatively smaller elementary schools. This becomes even more apparent by an examination of the subtest scores themselves. Of the four types of schools included in the Andrews study, the high school showed the highest mean scores for Production Emphasis and the next-to-highest mean scores for Intimacy.

The fact that the majority of subtests which correlate significantly are similar for the three samples could be interpreted as a high degree of stability for the OCDQ. The fact that all significant relationships were in the expected direction in terms of the definition of the concepts indicates that the internal validity is high.

#### Interrelationships between OCDQ Subtests and Climate.

The correlations between the "openness" of climate

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<sup>4</sup>Schools included in the study were classified under four types: (1) Elementary (Grades 1-6 or 8), (2) Elementary Junior High (Grades 1-9), (3) Secondary (Grades 7 or 9-9 or 12), and (4) Combined (Grades 1-12).



and each of the climate subtests are presented in Table X. In order to do this, the climate of a school was considered to be a continuous variable from "Open" to "Closed" and weighted from six to one respectively. The findings for this procedure, therefore, should be interpreted cautiously since by considering climate as a continuous variable, underlying assumptions are not met.

TABLE X

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE  
CLASSIFICATION AND THE CLIMATE DIMENSIONS

	Dis.	Hin.	Esp.	Int.	Al.	P.E.	Th.	Con.
Climate	-.60*	-.38*	.63*	.14	-.14	-.08	.59*	.38*

\*Significant at .05 level.

Findings. Of the eight possible relationships, five were significantly related to the "openness" of the school climate. Esprit, Thrust and Consideration showed a positive relationship whereas Disengagement and Hindrance were related negatively.

Discussion. It is apparent from Table X that Esprit, Thrust and Consideration contribute most to the Open Climate, whereas Disengagement and Hindrance are characteristic of the





Closed Climate. These findings are consistent with the prototypic profiles presented by Halpin and Croft and discussed in Chapter II of this study.

#### Distribution of Organizational Climates

The distribution of school climates for the present study, compared with the other two samples are presented in Table XI. The similarity in the distributions of the three samples is readily apparent. When a test for significant differences between samples was applied, no statistical significance was found.

### IV. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

The object of this section is to review the statistical tests used throughout the study. Each test will be examined briefly for purpose and underlying assumptions. Where possible, an attempt will be made to relate, in a general way, the test to the data of this study. More specific and detailed procedures will be described in the appropriate sections of the following paragraphs.

Statistical tests may be generally classified as parametric or nonparametric. Both types involve a number of assumptions about the nature of the distribution of the





TABLE XI

PRESENT SAMPLE COMPARED WITH THE HALPIN AND CROFT SAMPLE  
AND THE ANDREWS' SAMPLE ON THE DISTRIBUTION  
OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATES<sup>a</sup>

Organizational Climates	Present Sample	Andrews' Elementary Schools	Halpin and Croft Elementary Schools
Open	20%	25%	24%
Autonomous	10	6	8
Controlled	16	20	18
Familiar	16	14	12
Paternal	15	15	11
Closed	23	20	27
Total (%)	100	100	100
Number of Schools	81	51	71

<sup>a</sup>The present distribution compared with each of the other two distributions using Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test: not significant at .05 level in either case.

variables in the populations from which the samples are drawn. Parametric tests used for interval or ratio data (quantitative), make more demanding assumptions and as such are more powerful. Nonparametric procedures are used for data which is nominal and ordinal (qualitative) in nature,



make less demanding assumptions and are consequently less powerful. All tests used in this study, except one, are parametric. As such, the nature of the assumptions made in the application of any of the procedures should be well understood.

"t" test. This test is used for small sample statistics. It is used throughout the study to test the significance of the differences between the means of any number of samples taken two at a time.

The "t" test is parametric and is based primarily on two underlying assumptions: (1) normality of the parent distributions; and (2) equal variances. However, unless there is a marked departure from normality, and also a marked difference between variances, it is not likely that "t" scores will be unduly influenced. There seems enough evidence to indicate that the "t" test is "robust" under violation of assumptions; that is, calculated "t"s tend to follow closely the "t" distribution (5, pp. 105-106).

In this study this procedure is used when mean-school scores on the value subtests are tested for significance against the mean scores on the climate subtests, or other variables such as age, size of school, years of experience and so on.





Analysis of variance. This procedure is used to test the significance of the differences between the means of a number of different groups.

The analysis of variance is parametric, and is based on the assumptions of (1) normality of the parent distributions, and (2) homogeneity of variance. For small samples, it is quite difficult to demonstrate moderate departures from normality in the data (3, p. 240). Testing for homogeneity of variance may be done by the use of a number of techniques, most common among which are the Bartlett, Hartley and Cochran tests.

In this study, the schools were classified into four sub-samples, each representing varying levels of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence. The analysis of variance was then used to test the significance of differences between the means for the climate subtests for the schools in each of these sub-samples.

Chi square. The distribution of chi square is especially useful in many theoretical situations when we wish to compare "observed" with "theoretical or expected" frequency distributions.



This test is nonparametric and as such is not restricted to data of the interval or ratio type. The only major underlying assumption on which chi square is based, is that in certain applications,<sup>5</sup> the expected frequencies should not be less than five. Unlike parametric techniques, this test may be used when either little is known about the population distributions, or when the distributions are known to depart appreciably from the normal form.

In this study, chi square is used when school climates, rather than climate subscores, are compared to value scores and other variables.

Pearson r. Correlation is concerned with finding the degree of relationship between variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a form of bivariate analysis frequently used to find the degree of relationship between two variables.

Some of the basic assumptions underlying the correlation coefficient are: (1) linearity of regression, (2)

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<sup>5</sup>The applications referred to here are those where the degrees of freedom are equal to one. Where the degrees of freedom are equal to or greater than two, the effect of small expected frequencies on chi square is not as marked (5, p. 218).





homogeneity of variance or homoscedasticity, and (3) a bivariate normal distribution, or at least, distributions with similar shapes. It should be noted that correlations can be computed for distributions other than the normal types. If the two variables have different shapes, however, this circumstance will impose constraints upon the correlation coefficient (3, p. 110).

A correlation coefficient should be interpreted with care. Normally, in attempting to determine the degree of relationship between two variables, it is helpful to think in terms of the square of the correlation coefficient, rather than in terms of the coefficient itself. For example, a correlation coefficient of .50 represents .25, or twenty-five percent, association. Stated differently one might say that twenty-five percent of the variance of the one variable is predictable from a knowledge of the other.

Multiple correlation R. This technique is a form of multivariate analysis used primarily for two reasons: (1) analysis and (2) prediction. The purpose of analysis is to determine the relative importance or "weight" of a number of variables in contributing to some final result. The aim in prediction is the calculation of weights which produce the





maximum possible correlation between a criterion (dependent) variable and two or more predictor (independent) variables.

The basic assumption underlying the use of multiple correlation procedures is linearity of regression among the first order correlations. Multiple correlations will be higher when intercorrelations among the predictors are low instead of high.

Because of the nature of some hypotheses presented in this study, it was necessary to determine the extent of relationship between both Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and each of the climate subtests. Multiple correlation tests were applied for this purpose.

One final but important observation is appropriate here. The object of statistical inference is making reasonable decisions on the basis of partial information. As a rule, before generalizations beyond the study group can be justified it is important that some kind of random sampling from the larger population be made. Inasmuch as the sample for this study is not a randomly chosen sample from a larger population, statistical inferences beyond the present study group are not justifiable. Statistically significant findings from this study, therefore, are applicable to the



principals and teachers in the English Catholic elementary schools of the Greater Montreal area only. It should also be stated however, that "general inductive assumptions," that is, assumptions that a true statement about this study group will hold for other similar or fairly similar groups, when made judiciously, are both necessary and useful. Nowhere in this study, was it intended to give the impression that when statistical significance was attained, that inferences could be made beyond the present study group. When such inferences are suggested in the interpretations, they are intended to be "general inductive assumptions" only.

The major statistical tests used in the study have been reviewed. The following two chapters will examine the application of the various techniques to the testing of the hypotheses.





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## CHAPTER V

### TESTING THE HYPOTHESES: PART I

In this chapter the relationships between Value-Consonance, Value-Congruence and each of the OCDQ subtests are investigated. More specifically, the relationships tested are those presented in Hypotheses One to Four in Chapter II of this study.

#### I. VALUES AND THE SOCIAL NEEDS FACTOR

##### Testing Hypothesis One.

The two parts of the hypothesis being tested in this section, and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study are:

- I.I There will be a direct relationship between each of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Intimacy and Consideration.
- I.II Because Intimacy and Consideration are dimensions of individual social needs, Consonance in values will show a stronger relationship to Intimacy and Consideration than will Congruence.

Procedure I. To test the first part of this hypothesis, schools were divided into two groups on the basis of their Consonance scores and again into two groups according to





their Congruence scores. Those above the median were considered to be "high" in Consonance and Congruence, those below the median were considered to be "low." The mean Intimacy and Consideration scores were calculated and the differences between the group means were tested for significance by use of "t" tests. The results of this analysis are presented in Table XII.

TABLE XII

MEAN INTIMACY AND CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR SCHOOLS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF VALUE-CONSONANCE  
AND VALUE-CONGRUENCE

INTIMACY		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	48.89	1.96	105.31	.86
	Low	38	50.85		94.18	
Congruence	High	39	51.51	3.35	88.87	1.49
	Low	38	48.16		107.32	
CONSIDERATION		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	48.34	2.14	89.83	1.01
	Low	38	50.48		84.15	
Congruence	High	39	48.81	1.19	91.23	.56
	Low	38	50.00		84.33	

<sup>a</sup>t = 2.00 required for significance at .05 level.





Findings. None of the calculated "t"s are significant. Only those schools grouped on the Congruence variable show a difference in mean Intimacy scores that approaches significance and this, only on the basis of a one-tailed test.

It may be noted that, when means were calculated none of the other differences between mean Intimacy and mean Consideration scores are in the predicted direction. However, when correlations were obtained (see Table XIII) only one negative relationship remained. Intimacy related negatively to Value-Consonance. On its own, the relationship is too weak to be interpreted meaningfully. In light of some other findings related to Hypotheses Three and Four, however, it merits, and will be given, some consideration.

Procedure II. In order to test the second part of Hypothesis One, it was necessary to find the relationship between Consonance and Congruence and each of the Intimacy and Consideration scores. Moreover, it was thought that it might be desirable to determine the predictive value of Consonance and Congruence scores in estimating Intimacy and Consideration. This last procedure seemed especially appropriate in this instance, because Consonance and Congruence, treated



as predictor variables, are truly dimensional.<sup>1</sup> The results of these correlation tests are presented in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION PREDICTION OF INTIMACY AND  
CONSIDERATION BY CONSONANCE AND CONGRUENCE  
IN VALUES (N=77)

INTIMACY	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	-.07	-.07	.17	1.00
Congruence	.15	.15		
CONSIDERATION	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	.04	.04	.10	.37
Congruence	.09	.09		

<sup>a</sup>F = 3.12 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. Neither multiple R is significant. As expected from the previous findings, all correlation coefficients are low, with Congruence and Intimacy showing the

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<sup>1</sup>The correlation coefficient between Consonance and Congruence is equal to zero. This means that the predictors become fully effective in establishing multiple R.





greatest of the four relationships.

On the basis of the above results, it was felt that further analysis should be made.

Procedure III. All schools were classified according to the following four typologies on the basis of their Consonance and Congruence scores: (1) high Consonance, high Congruence; (2) high Consonance, low Congruence; (3) low Consonance, high Congruence; and (4) low Consonance, low Congruence. An analysis of variance test was applied, the results of which are presented in Tables XIV and XV.

TABLE XIV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF INTIMACY SCORES FOR FOUR TYPES  
OF SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR CONSONANCE  
AND CONGRUENCE SCORES

Source	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F <sup>a</sup>
Between Schools	346	115.33	3	1.13
Within Schools	7424	101.70	73	
Total	7770			

<sup>a</sup>F = 2.73 required for significance at .05 level.



TABLE XV

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF CONSIDERATION SCORES FOR FOUR  
TYPES OF SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR  
CONSONANCE AND CONGRUENCE SCORES

Source	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F <sup>a</sup>
Between Schools	134	44.66	3	.49
Within Schools	6698	91.75	73	
Total	6832			

<sup>a</sup>F = 2.73 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. The tables indicate clearly that neither F ratio was significant. That the F ratio for Intimacy scores is higher than that for Consideration Scores was expected on the basis of previous findings. However, both ratios are so low that any attempt at comparison would be meaningless. Again, it was felt that a further investigation should be made. Therefore a final analysis of relationships with the values subscores was made.

Procedure IV. A number of straight correlations between selected value scores and the two climate dimensions were taken from the intercorrelation matrix,<sup>2</sup> and are presented in Table XVI.

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<sup>2</sup>See Appendix C.





TABLE XVI

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INTIMACY, CONSIDERATION  
AND VALUES SUBSCORES (N=77)

Values Subscores	Intimacy r	Consideration r
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORE		
Work-Success	-.02	-.06
Future-Time	-.03	-.04
Independence	-.01	-.11
Moral Commitment	.03	.30**
Total Score	.00	.03
PRINCIPAL'S SCORE		
Work-Success	.13	-.02
Future-Time	.07	.00
Independence	-.13	-.15
Moral Commitment	.01	-.13
Total Score	.04	-.10
CONGRUENCE SCORE		
Work-Success <sup>a</sup>	.19	-.03
Future-Time <sup>a</sup>	.01	.07
Independence <sup>a</sup>	.10	-.06
Moral Commitment <sup>a</sup>	.06	.03
Total Score <sup>a</sup>	.15	.09

\*\* Significant at .01 level.

<sup>a</sup> The signs of these correlation coefficients were reversed because of the fact that a numerically high Congruence score indicates a low degree of agreement between the principal and his staff.





Findings. Of all coefficients presented, one only, was found to be statistically significant from zero. The teachers' score on Moral Commitment is positively and significantly related to Consideration. None of the Congruence scores even at the subtest level showed significant relationships to either of the climate subtests.

Discussion. On the basis of the above analyses, neither part of Hypothesis One has been supported. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence as defined and measured in this study are not related to either of the two climate subtests of Intimacy and Consideration.

The one significant relationship resulted not from similarity in values among teachers (Consonance) nor from agreement in values between the principal and his staff (Congruence), but from the nature of values themselves. The teachers' score on the value of Moral Commitment was found to be significantly and positively related to the teachers' description of the principal as "considerate." Although this relationship was not embodied in the theoretical framework, and as such, not anticipated, its presence is not surprising. A staff committed to the "Golden Rule" and to the understanding of others in success and in failure, may



be more approachable and receptive and may more readily tend to overlook a principal's weaknesses in favor of his more humane qualities as a leader.

## II. VALUES AND THE SOCIAL CONTROL FACTOR

### Testing Hypothesis Two.

The two parts of the hypothesis being tested in this section, and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study are:

- II.I There will be an inverse relationship between each of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Aloofness and Production Emphasis.
- II.II Because Aloofness and Production Emphasis are dimensions of "Social Control," Congruence in values will show a stronger relationship to Aloofness and Production Emphasis than will Consonance.

Procedure I. The procedure here was similar to that used for testing the first hypothesis. Schools were divided at the median on the basis of their Value-Consonance scores and again at the median on the basis of their Value-Congruence scores. The mean Aloofness and Production Emphasis scores were calculated and the differences between the groups were tested for significance by means of "t" tests. Table XVII presents the results of this analysis.







TABLE XVII

MEAN ALOOFNESS AND PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCORES FOR  
SCHOOLS DIVIDED ON THE BASIS OF VALUE-CONSONANCE  
AND VALUE-CONGRUENCE

ALOOFNESS		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t*
Consonance	High	39	51.10	1.41	105.07	.62
	Low	38	49.69		93.15	
Congruence	High	39	47.33	6.22	117.31	2.89**
	Low	38	53.55		62.01	
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t
Consonance	High	39	49.36	1.44	110.90	.67
	Low	38	50.80		65.62	
Congruence	High	39	48.13	3.94	115.27	1.89*
	Low	38	52.07		54.31	

\*\*Significant at .01 level.

\*Significant at .05 level (one-tailed test).

Findings. Congruence was found to be negatively and significantly related to Aloofness. Congruence was also similarly related to Production Emphasis when a one-tailed



test was applied.<sup>3</sup> This was not the case, however, when the same schools were divided on the basis of Value-Consonance. In neither case did the differences approach significance.

It is somewhat disturbing to see the large discrepancy between the variances of Aloofness and Production Emphasis scores when these two climate subtests were grouped on the Congruence variable. Although the differences were not significant when a F test was applied, the question may well be asked whether significances are not due more to a difference of variation rather than a difference between the calculated means. In view of what was said in another section of this study regarding the ability of the "t" test to withstand even marked departures from the assumption of equal variances, and also since the calculated "t" for Aloofness is highly significant, it was taken to mean true differences between means.

Procedure II. In order to test part two of this hypothesis, Pearson product-moment correlations were obtained between Consonance and Congruence and each of the climate subtests. In addition, as was the case for Hypothesis One,

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<sup>3</sup>A one-tailed test is appropriate in view of the hypothesis being tested.





the predictive value of Consonance and Congruence scores was calculated. The results are presented in Table XVIII

TABLE XVIII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION PREDICTION OF ALOOFNESS AND  
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS BY CONSONANCE AND  
CONGRUENCE IN VALUES

ALOOFNESS	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F
Consonance	-.05	-.05	.29	3.30*
Congruence	-.28	-.28		
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F
Consonance	-.11	-.11	.16	.91
Congruence	-.11	-.11		

\*Significant at .05 level.

Findings. Clearly, all first order correlations are in the predicted direction. Moreover, the degree of relationship is as predicted for the Aloofness subtest. That is, Congruence in values does show a greater relationship to Aloofness than does Consonance. In the case of Production Emphasis, the relationships were equal.





Although on the basis of the calculated "t"s in the previous analysis, mean Production Emphasis scores were significantly different when divided on Congruence, the significance disappeared when correlations were obtained. The reason for this might very well be attributed to the discrepancy in variances already referred to above.

By means of the first order relationships and appropriate beta coefficients,<sup>4</sup> the multiple R's were calculated and tested for significance from zero by the use of an F ratio. Only the multiple R for Aloofness was found to be statistically significant. Moreover, the significance derives almost totally from the first order relationship between Congruence and Aloofness. The addition of a second variable (Consonance) increases prediction only slightly.

Procedure III. In order to determine the amount of common variance between the values subscores and the two climate dimensions, a number of correlation coefficients were obtained. The results are presented in Table XIX.

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<sup>4</sup>The fact that the beta coefficients are identical to the first order correlation-coefficients results from the fact that the relationship between the two predictor variables (Consonance and Congruence) is zero.



TABLE XIX

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ALOOFNESS, PRODUCTION EMPHASIS  
AND VALUES SUBSCORES (N=77)

Values Subscores	Aloofness r	Prod. Emph. r
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORE		
Work-Success	-.01	.21
Future-Time	-.02	.22*
Independence	.14	.13
Moral Commitment	-.05	.02
Total Score	.02	.22*
PRINCIPAL'S SCORE		
Work-Success	.16	.12
Future-Time	-.06	-.09
Independence	.37**	.03
Moral Commitment	.13	-.08
Total Score	.19	-.01
CONGRUENCE SCORE		
Work-Success <sup>a</sup>	-.23*	-.14
Future-Time <sup>a</sup>	.02	.02
Independence <sup>a</sup>	-.17	-.17
Moral Commitment <sup>a</sup>	-.15	-.04
Total Score <sup>a</sup>	-.28*	-.11

\*Significant at .05 level.

\*\*Significant at .01 level.

<sup>a</sup>The signs of these correlation coefficients are reversed because of the fact that a high Congruence score indicates a low degree of agreement between the principal and his staff.





Findings. Other than the correlation between Congruence (on total values score) and Aloofness, four significant correlations were found.

Congruence on Work-Success related significantly and negatively to the teachers' description of the principal's behaviour as "aloof." The principal's score on the value of Independence showed a high positive relationship to Aloofness. The teachers' mean score on the value of Future-Time and on the total values score showed a significant and positive relationship to Production Emphasis. The teachers' mean score on Work-Success approached significance.

Discussion. The above analyses show that, as predicted, Consonance and Congruence in values show a negative relationship to Aloofness. In the case of Congruence, the relationship was considerably stronger. In other words, the principal is more apt to be described as "aloof" by his staff in those school situations where his values and those of the teachers are dissimilar than where agreement exists. Stated differently, the type of formal and impersonal behaviour which characterizes Aloofness is probably expected, indeed it may even be considered essential, by a staff whose values are similar to those of the principal. The resulting effect is



that "Aloofness" as defined in this study, is not perceived to be Aloofness at all.

The introduction of the concept "perception" in this and in other interpretations may cause the reader some concern. The question may well be asked whether the above interpretation does not, in fact, suggest that values are related only to perception rather than to the behaviour of individuals as stated in the basic problem of this research. The answer to this question must be that the concepts of values and perception are inextricably interwoven. This is especially so when the behaviour of an individual, such as the principal, is considered to be what the teachers in his school perceive him to be. What is said, in effect, is that values are related to social behaviour. Moreover, it is also suggested that when two individuals or groups share similar values, one of the parties is more likely to perceive the patterns of behaviour of the other party as desirable, notwithstanding the general acceptability of this type of behaviour. In this situation therefore, Aloofness on the part of the principal, although probably not considered to be desirable behaviour by certain school staffs, may be very acceptable to a staff whose members share a set of values similar to those of the principal.





Unlike the findings discussed above, no significant relationships existed between Value-Consonance or Value-Congruence and the climate subtest of Production Emphasis. There seems to be no reasonable explanation for this occurrence. However, it may be recalled that the differences between means for Production Emphasis were significant when divided on the Congruence variable (See Table XVII, p. 115). This suggests that further investigation into this area may well be a worthwhile endeavor.

It may be noted that, as hypothesized, since Aloofness is a form of social behaviour emanating primarily from the principal, the agreement in values between the principal and the teachers (Congruence) showed a much stronger relationship to the teachers' description of his behaviour than did the similarity in values among staff members (Consonance). In the case of Production Emphasis, the relationships were identical, though again in the predicted direction.

Although not anticipated in the original hypotheses, a number of significant relationships evolved from further analysis. For instance, the principal's score on the value of Independence showed a strong positive relationship to Aloofness. Clearly, the "autonomous self" stressed in the





value of Independence seems predicated, in major part at least, upon a detachment from the group.

Congruence in the value of Work-Success was also found to relate to Aloofness, though negatively as would be expected. For reasons similar to those already reviewed, a principal who values achievement over sociability is more apt to be described as "aloof" by a staff whose values differ from his own, than by a staff with similar values.

Finally, it was not surprising, though admittedly, not anticipated; to find the teachers' score on the value of Future-Time Orientation, and the teachers' total values score both directly related to Production Emphasis. Preparation for the promising future demands sacrifice and achievement, whereas an orientation to the present results in more hedonistic attitudes.

On the basis of the above results, therefore, Hypothesis Two is essentially supported.

### III. VALUES AND THE ESPRIT FACTOR

#### Testing Hypothesis Three

The hypothesis being tested in this section and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:



III. There will be a direct relationship between each of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the two dimensions of Esprit and Thrust.

Procedure I. In order to test this hypothesis, schools were divided on the basis of their Value-Consonance score and again on their Value-Congruence scores. The mean Esprit and Thrust scores were obtained and the differences between the means tested for significance. Table XX presents all necessary data pertaining to the tests.

Findings. It is evident that none of the calculated "t"s is significant. Once again, climate subscores grouped on the basis of Congruence, are in the hypothesized direction. In this instance, Esprit and Thrust scores are higher where there is a greater degree of agreement between the values held by the principal and those of his staff. However, climate subscores divided on Consonance are not in the predicted direction. This finding could easily be dismissed by referring to the fact that it falls short of statistical significance. Moreover, since the amount of variance common to Esprit and Thrust is quite high,<sup>5</sup> it is not surprising to find the

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<sup>5</sup>In this study the correlation coefficient between Esprit and Thrust is .48.







TABLE XX

MEAN ESPRIT AND THRUST SCORES FOR SCHOOLS DIVIDED ON  
THE BASIS OF VALUE-CONSONANCE AND VALUE-CONGRUENCE

ESPRIT		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	48.51	3.10	124.03	1.34
	Low	38	51.61		76.04	
Congruence	High	39	51.22	2.39	84.18	1.04
	Low	38	48.83		118.93	
THRUST		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var.	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	49.42	.78	101.86	.35
	Low	38	50.20		86.85	
Congruence	High	39	50.37	1.16	96.28	.52
	Low	38	49.21		92.21	

<sup>a</sup>t = 2.00 required for significance at .05 level.

scores for both these dimensions in the same direction. The noteworthy feature about this occurrence, however, is that this is precisely a recurrence of the pattern of relationships resulting from an earlier analysis of the Intimacy subtest scores. It will be recalled that in testing Hypothesis One, Intimacy scores were found to be higher when Consonance was low.



The suggestion in this instance is clear. When there is too much similarity in values among staff members, Esprit tends to be lower than when value differences exist. This interpretation will be dealt with more fully in the appropriate part of this section.

Procedure II. Although neither of the computed "t"s for mean Esprit scores attained significance, they appeared sufficiently high to warrant further investigation. Using Consonance and Congruence as predictor variables and Esprit as the criterion, a multiple correlation analysis was applied. The results are presented in Table XXI.

TABLE XXI

MULTIPLE REGRESSION PREDICTION OF ESPRIT BY  
CONSONANCE AND CONGRUENCE IN VALUES

ESPRIT	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Corr. R	F <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	-.20	-.20		
			.27	2.75
Congruence	.17	.17		

<sup>a</sup>F = 3.12 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. The F ratio required for significance was not attained, although, clearly, it did approach the required





figure.

Procedure III. Since both first order correlations between Esprit and each of the Consonance and Congruence variables yielded reasonably high coefficients; and since these coefficients were in opposite directions, it was felt that an analysis of variance based on four groups representing schools with varying degrees of Consonance and Congruence, might prove useful.

The seventy-seven schools were divided according to the following four types: (1) high Consonance, high Congruence; (2) high Consonance, low Congruence; (3) low Consonance, high Congruence; and (4) low Consonance, low Congruence. The results are presented in Table XXII.

TABLE XXII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF ESPRIT SCORES FOR FOUR TYPES  
OF SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR  
CONSONANCE AND CONGRUENCE SCORES

Source	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	df	F <sup>a</sup>
Between Schools	233	77.7	3	.73
Within Schools	7774	106.5	73	
Total	8007			

<sup>a</sup>F = 2.73 required for significance at .05 level.





Findings. The results are quite clear. The F ratio was not significant. On the basis of these findings, therefore, it can be said that no significant differences exist between the population means represented by the four samples described above. More specifically, in terms of the previous findings which gave rise to this test, it cannot be said that Esprit in schools which are low on Value-Consonance and high on Value-Congruence is significantly different from those schools represented by any of the other three types.

Procedure IV. In view of the fact that Consonance and Congruence on the total values scores failed to show any significant correlations with either Esprit or Thrust, it was decided to obtain correlations between both these climate dimensions and the subtest value scores. The results are presented in Table XXIII.

Findings. The teachers' mean score on the value of Independence related negatively and significantly to Esprit and Thrust. No statistically significant relationships were found between the values held by the principal and either of the two climate dimensions. Also, there were no statistically significant relationships between these same two dimensions



TABLE XXIII

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ESPRIT, THRUST  
AND VALUES SUBSCORES (N=77)

Values Subscores	Esprit r	Thrust r
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORE		
Work-Success	-.08	-.13
Future-Time	-.05	-.06
Independence	-.23*	-.24*
Moral Commitment	.16	.17
Total Score	-.07	-.10
PRINCIPAL'S SCORE		
Work-Success	-.04	-.13
Future-Time	.02	-.06
Independence	-.13	-.13
Moral Commitment	-.16	-.09
Total Score	-.11	-.14
CONGRUENCE SCORE		
Work-Success <sup>a</sup>	.11	.02
Future-Time <sup>a</sup>	.08	.07
Independence <sup>a</sup>	.03	-.07
Moral Commitment <sup>a</sup>	-.10	.03
Total Score <sup>a</sup>	.17	.14

\* Significant at .05 level.

<sup>a</sup> The signs of these correlation coefficients were reversed because of the fact that a numerically high Congruence score indicates a low degree of agreement between the principal and his staff.





and the Congruence scores at the subtest level.

One striking feature of Table XXIII is the similarity of the distributions of coefficients for the two climate subtests. This may be taken as a reinforcement of all previous findings that the amount of variance common to Esprit and Thrust is high.

Discussion. On the basis of the above analyses, Hypothesis Three is not supported. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence as defined and measured in this study, showed no significant relationships to either Esprit or Thrust.

The negative relationship between the teachers' score on Independence and Esprit is not unexpected. Clearly, the satisfaction of social needs is dependent upon compliance and conformity rather than independence and autonomy. The "morale" of a school may be considered a group concept, contingent on "togetherness" and not individualism.

The second relationship, however, is not as clear. On the face of it there seems little reason to expect that the teachers' score on Independence should relate as strongly to Thrust as it does to Esprit. One would be more apt to expect the principal's score, or even the Congruence score on this same value to provide the stronger relationships. After all,



Thrust, unlike Esprit, is purportedly a measure of the principal's behaviour.

It is quite likely, however, that in attempting to motivate the staff by his example rather than by directives and close supervision, the principal reduces considerably status differences, with the result that he is viewed by his teachers as one of them. In this context, therefore, Thrust becomes staff-oriented behaviour, as is Esprit. Also, with this interpretation in mind, the strong positive relationship between these two climate dimensions may be reconciled.

The one unexpected result from the analysis is the negative relationship between Consonance in values and Esprit. Although not statistically significant, the relationship is sufficiently strong to demand consideration. It becomes increasingly imperative to do so when this finding is coupled with the fact that Consonance relates negatively with Intimacy (Hypothesis One) and positively with Disengagement (Hypothesis Four).

Although one must proceed with caution, especially since none of the above mentioned relationships are significant, the trend in direction is obvious. It is becoming increasingly clear that, Value-Consonance as measured in this study, is not conducive to the type of school situation where





teachers' social needs are satisfied or where teachers enjoy friendly relations with each other. In fact, if anything, the tendency is for the opposite to be true.

This finding may be given at least two possible interpretations. The first and more obvious one is that similarity in values among teachers is not a desirable staff characteristic. Corwin, for instance, found that job satisfaction related positively and significantly with rates of conflict in a school (1, p. 14).

A second and equally plausible interpretation is that Value-Consonance is conducive to friendly relations though not on a total staff basis, as had been anticipated. If such friendly relations do exist, they are more likely to take place within smaller groups than within the staff taken as a whole. This interpretation provides a reasonable explanation for the direction of the relationships discussed above. A school where teachers band together in smaller groups would likely be described by the staff as low in Esprit and high in Disengagement. Indeed, one of the items included in the Disengagement subtest, specifically refers to teachers socializing in small select groups.

The findings of this study indicate that certain





aspects of social behaviour in any one school are more likely to be related to the nature of, rather than the variation in, the values of the staff members. For instance, if schools are viewed as holding a place on the values continuum, which extends from the highly emergent to the highly traditional extremities; then it is the position of any one school (measured by the teachers' mean values score) and not the degree of similarity in the values among staff members (measured by the variance) which will relate to the social interactions within that school. This will become more apparent in the next section of this chapter and throughout the next chapter, where hypotheses relating values to organizational climate are analyzed.

#### Testing Hypothesis Four

The hypothesis being tested in this section and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:

- IV. There will be an inverse relationship between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and each of the two dimensions of Disengagement and Hindrance.

Procedure I. This hypothesis was tested by dividing all schools on the basis of their Value-Consonance scores and again on their Value-Congruence scores. The mean Disengagement and Hindrance scores were obtained and the



difference between means tested for significance. The results of these procedures are presented in Table XXIV.

TABLE XXIV

MEAN DISENGAGEMENT AND HINDRANCE SCORES FOR SCHOOLS DIVIDED ON THE BASIS OF VALUE-CONSONANCE AND VALUE-CONGRUENCE

DISENGAGEMENT		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var..	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	51.24	3.11	113.05	1.40
	Low	38	48.13		77.34	
Congruence	High	39	48.94	1.55	75.97	.69
	Low	38	50.49		119.06	
HINDRANCE		N	Mean	Diff. Means	Var..	t <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	High	39	48.41	3.43	86.06	1.51
	Low	38	51.84		112.79	
Congruence	High	39	49.37	1.48	108.26	.64
	Low	38	50.85		94.86	

<sup>a</sup>t = 2.00 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. Although none of the calculated "t"s reached statistical significance, the differences in Disengagement and Hindrance scores divided on the Consonance variable, are considerably higher than those grouped on Congruence. Also







apparent is a considerable discrepancy in the variances, especially on the Disengagement subtest, although none of the differences was significant when an F test was applied.

Once again we have a recurrence of mean climate subscores, when divided on the basis of Value-Consonance, showing differences which are in the direction, opposite to that hypothesized. In this instance, Disengagement is perceived to be higher in those schools where Consonance is high than where Consonance is low.

Procedure II. As was the case for other hypotheses, a multiple correlation analysis was applied. The multiple R, was converted to an F ratio and tested for significance. The required data are presented in Table XXV.

Findings. Neither of the two computed multiple R's attained statistical significance. It may be noted that, although both Disengagement and Hindrance scores showed considerably higher "t"s when divided on the Consonance variable than when grouped on the basis of Congruence, these differences disappeared when correlations were attained. The first order correlation coefficients between Disengagement and the predictor variables are identical, except for direction. The



TABLE XXV

MULTIPLE REGRESSION PREDICTION OF DISENGAGEMENT  
AND HINDRANCE BY CONSONANCE AND  
CONGRUENCE IN VALUES (N=77)

DISENGAGEMENT	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	.10	.10	.14	.75
Congruence	-.10	-.10		
HINDRANCE	r	Beta Coefficient	Multiple Correlation R	F <sup>a</sup>
Consonance	-.15	-.15	.21	1.62
Congruence	-.14	-.14		

<sup>a</sup>F = 3.12 required for significance at .05 level.

coefficients between Hindrance and the same two predictors differ only by one. The reason for this would have to be attributed to the discrepancy in the variances already referred to in the above analysis.

Procedure III. As a final analysis of this hypothesis, it was decided to obtain the correlation coefficients between both Disengagement and Hindrance subtests and the values subscores. The results are presented in Table XXVI.





TABLE XXVI

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DISENGAGEMENT, HINDRANCE  
AND VALUES SUBSCORES (N=77)

Values Subscores	Disengagement r	Hindrance r
TEACHERS' MEAN SCORE		
Work-Success	.28*	.07
Future-Time	.17	.06
Independence	.29*	.01
Moral Commitment	-.30**	-.03
Total Score	.17	.04
PRINCIPAL'S SCORE		
Work-Success	-.08	-.02
Future-Time	.01	-.08
Independence	.02	.18
Moral Commitment	-.05	.18
Total Score	-.04	.08
CONGRUENCE SCORE		
Work-Success <sup>a</sup>	.09	-.01
Future-Time <sup>a</sup>	-.23**	.06
Independence <sup>a</sup>	-.03	-.02
Moral Commitment <sup>a</sup>	.04	-.05
Total Score <sup>a</sup>	-.10	-.14

\* Significant at .05 level.

\*\* Significant at .01 level.

<sup>a</sup> The signs of these correlation coefficients were reversed because of the fact that a numerically high Congruence score indicates a low degree of agreement between the principal and his staff.





Findings. Although no significant correlations were found between Hindrance and any of the selected variables, this is not the case for Disengagement. This climate subtest showed a significant positive correlation with: (1) the teachers' score on the value of Work-Success; (2) the teachers' score on the value of Independence; and (3) the agreement between principal and staff on the value of Future-Time. Disengagement correlated negatively and significantly with the teachers' mean score on Moral Commitment.

Discussion. Although three of the four relationships between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence were in the predicted direction none is statistically significant. On the basis of these findings, therefore, Hypothesis Four is considered not supported. As already stated, however, on the basis of further analysis, a number of significant relationships between values and Disengagement evolved.

The negative relationship between Congruence on the value of Future-Time and Disengagement is as expected. Also as expected is the positive relationship between the teachers' score on the value of Work-Success and Disengagement, since by definition this climate subtest focuses upon the teachers in the task-oriented situation. The third relationship, that



between the teachers' score on the value of Independence and Disengagement is not unexpected since the value of Independence by definition is characterized primarily by self-activity.

Not so clear, however, is the negative relationship between the teachers' score on Moral Commitment and Disengagement. There seems no obvious reason why this relationship should be negative, especially since Moral Commitment relates positively and significantly with all three other traditional values.<sup>6</sup> It may be argued, however, that whereas Work-Success, Future-Time Orientation, and Independence, have an individual frame of reference, Moral Commitment is predicated, to a considerable extent, upon an understanding of, and love for, one's fellow man. In other words, endeavoring to get along with others is part of the ethical responsibility. With this interpretation in mind, therefore, its negative relationship to Disengagement and positive relationship to Esprit and Thrust is understandable.

In conclusion, the absence of a significant relationship between Value-Consonance and Disengagement; and in contrast, the presence of three significant relationships between

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<sup>6</sup>See Table VII, p. 90.







teachers' mean value scores and this same climate dimension, can only reinforce the interpretation of previous findings. It is the position of a school on the values continuum and not the degree of similarity in values among staff members, which will more likely relate to the various aspects of its social behaviour.

This chapter has presented the testing and analysis of hypotheses One to Four. The statistically significant relationships which evolved from the analysis, may be summarized as follows:

1. Congruence on the total values score showed a negative relationship to Aloofness and to Production Emphasis when "t" tests were applied. The statistically significant relationship between Value-Congruence and Production Emphasis disappeared when correlation coefficients were computed.
2. Congruence on the value of Work-Success showed a negative relationship to Aloofness.
3. Congruence on the value of Future-Time showed a negative relationship to Disengagement.
4. The teachers' mean score on the value of Work-Success showed a positive relationship to Disengagement.



5. The teachers' mean score on the value of Future-Time showed a positive relationship to Production Emphasis.
6. The teachers' mean score on the value of Independence showed a positive relationship to Disengagement and a negative relationship to Esprit and Thrust.
7. The teachers' mean score on the value of Moral Commitment showed a positive relationship to Consideration and a negative relationship to Disengagement.
8. The teachers' mean total values score showed a positive relationship to Production Emphasis.
9. The principal's score on the value of Independence showed a positive relationship to Aloofness.

This chapter has presented an analysis of the relationships between the values held by individuals in a school, and the Organizational Climate subtests. The following chapter will investigate the relationship between these same values and other variables.



## REFERENCES FOR CHAPTER V

1. Corwin, Ronald G. "The Development of an Instrument for Examining Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools," Co-operative Research Project, Number 1934, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1964. (Mimeographed).





## CHAPTER VI

### TESTING THE HYPOTHESES: PART II

In this chapter the relationships between the values held by individuals in the school and such variables as climate, age and sex will be investigated. More specifically, the relationships are those presented in Hypotheses Five to Eight in Chapter II of this study.

#### I. VALUES AND THE CLIMATE FACTOR

##### Testing Hypothesis Five

The first hypothesis being tested in this section as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:

- V. There will be a direct relationship between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and the "openness" of the Organizational Climate.

Procedure I. To test this hypothesis all schools were divided at the median on the basis of their Consonance scores and again on the basis of their Congruence scores. Those schools common to the upper half of both groups were considered to be "high" on both value variables. Those common to the lower halves were designated as "low." A chi square test was applied, the results of which are presented in Table XXVII.



TABLE XXVII  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSONANCE, CONGRUENCE  
AND SCHOOL CLIMATE

Values Variables	Open Autonomous	Controlled Familiar	Paternal Closed	Total	Chi Square <sup>a</sup>
High Cons. High Cong.	5	7	8	20	.17
Low Cons. Low Cong.	6	6	7	19	

<sup>a</sup>Chi Square = 5.99 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. No significant differences were found between those schools which were high on both Consonance and Congruence and those schools which were low on both these same variables.

Procedure II. In order to investigate the possibility of significant relationships between either Value-Consonance or Value-Congruence and climate, a further analysis was made. The schools were now divided on the basis of one value variable, then on the other. A chi square test was applied in each case and the results are presented in Table XXVIII.





TABLE XXVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSONANCE AND SCHOOL CLIMATE  
AND CONGRUENCE AND SCHOOL CLIMATE

Values Variables	Open Autonomous	Controlled Familiar	Paternal Closed	Total	Chi Square <sup>a</sup>
High Cons.	9	12	18	39	1.90
Low Cons.	13	13	12	38	
Values Variables	Open Autonomous	Controlled Familiar	Paternal Closed	Total	Chi Square <sup>a</sup>
High Cong.	12	14	13	39	1.18
Low Cong.	11	10	17	38	

<sup>a</sup>Chi Square = 5.99 required for significance at .05 level.

Findings. It is clear from the tables that in neither case did the values of chi square reach statistical significance.

Discussion. On the basis of the above analysis Hypothesis Five is not supported. It will be recalled from the findings in the previous chapter that none of the eight climate subtests related significantly to Value-Consonance and only the subtests of Aloofness and Production Emphasis showed a significant relationship to Value-Congruence. Other results



also indicated that the subtests contributing most to school climate are Esprit, Thrust and Disengagement.<sup>1</sup> With these findings in mind therefore, the absence of significant relationships between Value-Consonance, Value-Congruence and Organizational Climate is not surprising.

#### Testing Hypothesis Six.

The next hypothesis being tested in this section and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:

- VI. There will be no significant relationships between "traditional-oriented" behaviour or "emergent-oriented behaviour" and the "openness" of Organizational Climate.

Procedure I. Schools were divided at the median on the basis of the mean staff value score and again on the basis of the principal's value score. Those schools where both principal and staff scored above the median were considered to be "traditional-oriented"; those schools whose scores were below the median were designated as "emergent-oriented." This procedure was repeated five times, once on the total score, and subsequently on each of the value subtests. The findings are presented in Table XXIX.

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<sup>1</sup>See Table X, p. 96.





TABLE XXIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL CLIMATE AND THE  
PRINCIPAL'S AND TEACHERS' VALUE SCORES

Values Variables	Open Autonomous N	Controlled Familiar N	Paternal Closed N	Total	Chi Square
TOTAL SCORE					
Emergent	6	10	4	20	9.43**
Traditional	3	3	13	19	
WORK-SUCCESS					
Emergent	6	9	4	19	5.58 <sup>a</sup>
Traditional	5	3	10	18	
FUTURE-TIME					
Emergent	6	11	4	21	5.82 <sup>a</sup>
Traditional	6	4	10	20	
INDEPENDENCE					
Emergent	10	6	5	21	7.75*
Traditional	2	7	11	20	
MORAL COMMIT.					
Emergent	2	7	11	20	6.85*
Traditional	9	3	7	19	

\* Significant at .05 level.  
 \*\* Significant at .01 level.  
<sup>a</sup> Significant at .07 level.





Findings. The "openness" of school climate was found to be significantly related to the values held by the principal and staff on (1) the total score, (2) Independence and (3) Moral Commitment. In the case of Work-Success and Future-Time Orientation, the chi square value approached significance.

Also of interest is the fact that all scores show a direct relationship between emergent values and "openness" of climate except Moral Commitment, in which case an emergent score shows a significant inverse relationship. That is, a low score on Moral Commitment (emergent), is inversely related to the "openness" of Organizational Climate.

Procedure II. The results from Procedure I prompted further analysis. It seemed important to determine whether the common variance between values and climate results primarily from the values of both principal and staff in any one school as is suggested by the above analysis, or whether it stems primarily from one of the two parties. More specifically, to what extent do the values of the principal and, to what extent do the values of the staff, relate to the climate of the school?

For this analysis, schools were divided at the median on the basis of the teachers' mean value scores. As in the



previous procedure, this was done for the total score and repeated for each of the value subscores. The findings are presented in Table XXX.

TABLE XXX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL CLIMATE AND  
TEACHERS' VALUE SCORES

Values Variables	Open Autonomous	Controlled Familiar	Paternal Closed	Total	Chi Square
TOTAL SCORE					
Emergent	14	17	8	39	10.54**
Traditional	10	7	21	38	
WORK-SUCCESS					
Emergent	14	14	11	39	3.87
Traditional	9	10	19	38	
FUTURE-TIME					
Emergent	14	16	9	39	8.50*
Traditional	9	8	21	38	
INDEPENDENCE					
Emergent	16	13	10	39	7.05*
Traditional	7	11	20	38	
MORAL COMMIT.					
Emergent	6	15	18	39	7.78*
Traditional	17	9	12	38	

\* Significant at .05 level.

\*\* Significant at .01 level.





Findings. In all cases except one, the teachers' mean value score is significantly related to the "openness" of school climate. In all cases except one, "emergent-oriented behaviour" is directly related to the "openness" of Organizational Climate. Again, as in the above analysis, an emergent score on Moral Commitment shows an inverse relationship to the "openness" of Organizational Climate.

Procedure III. The third and final investigation was to repeat the previous analysis, this time on the basis of the principal's value score. The results are presented in Table XXXI.

Findings. None of the values of chi square attained statistical significance. In other words, in no case, were the values held by the principal significantly related to the Organizational Climate of his school.

Discussion. The results of the above analyses may be summarized as follows: (1) There is a significant relationship between the climate of those schools where the principal and his staff both hold to emergent value patterns and those schools where the principal and his staff hold to traditional value patterns; (2) the significant relationships persisted



TABLE XXXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOL CLIMATE AND  
THE PRINCIPAL'S VALUE SCORES

Values Variables	Open Autonomous N	Controlled Familiar N	Paternal Closed N	Total	Chi Square <sup>a</sup>
TOTAL SCORE					
Emergent	13	14	12	38	2.23
Traditional	10	10	18	39	
WORK-SUCCESS					
Emergent	11	16	12	39	2.67
Traditional	13	9	16	38	
FUTURE-TIME					
Emergent	11	16	12	39	4.80
Traditional	13	7	18	38	
INDEPENDENCE					
Emergent	13	10	16	39	1.73
Traditional	10	15	13	38	
MORAL COMMIT.					
Emergent	10	12	17	39	.70
Traditional	13	11	14	38	

<sup>a</sup>Chi square = 5.99 required for significance at .05 level.

when the values of the principal were disregarded and only the values of the staff were considered; (3) the significant





relationships disappeared when the values of the staff were disregarded and only the values of the principal were considered.

Evolving from the above results are a number of observations. For instance, when these findings are contrasted with those of Hypothesis Five, it becomes quite apparent that the climate of a school as measured in this study, is not related to Value-Consonance, nor to Value-Congruence, but to the nature of the values themselves.

The reference to the values continuum, first made in Chapter Five, may be usefully re-examined here. The climate of a particular school may be conceived as relating to the position which that school occupies on a values continuum extending between the emergent and traditional extremes, and not to the variation in values among staff members (Consonance) or to the agreement in values between the principal and the staff (Congruence) as measured in this study. Moreover, upon further analysis it was found that the relationships will be statistically significant when the position on the continuum is determined by the teachers' mean values score and not by the values held by the principal.

The fact that the principal's score fails to show any significant relationship to Organizational Climate must be





interpreted cautiously. The first and perhaps more obvious interpretation is that, in effect, the principal's values have very little influence on the climate of his school. Elsewhere in this study it was found that the principal's total values score showed a significant relationship to Aloofness only. When one realizes that of the eight subtests, Aloofness shows the next to least common variance with climate, the absence of a significant relationship is not surprising. On closer examination however, it may be recalled that over fifty percent of the principals comprising the sample for this study indicated that they had been in the present school two years or less. More accurately, since the respondents were instructed to count the present year as one, when completing the General Questionnaire, and since the study was conducted midway through the school year, over half the principals had been in the present school for approximately six months less than the length of time indicated. If it can be assumed that a reasonable amount of time is required before the principal is able to influence the social behaviour within his school, the results are understandable.

Another observation from the analyses of this hypothesis is that an emergent score on Moral Commitment, unlike a similar





score on any of the other three values, is inversely related to the "openness" of climate. The interpretation in this instance must be similar to the one presented in testing Hypothesis Four, where it was found that Moral Commitment was inversely related to Disengagement. The suggestion was made then that although Moral Commitment shows a significant positive relationship to each of the other three traditional values, it only, (Moral Commitment), has a "group" frame of reference. That is, an intrinsic part of the ethical responsibility is predicated upon a sacrifice for, and understanding of one's fellow man. Keeping in mind that the "openness" of climate is directly related to Esprit and inversely related to Disengagement, the direct relationship between Moral Commitment and the openness of climate relationship is understandable.

Finally, it may be stated that, in terms of held values among staff members, the six Organizational Climates present meaningful descriptions of global behaviour patterns in school situations. That is, the values held by individuals in a particular school are conducive to the type of behaviour patterns which make up the six Organizational Climates as described by Halpin and Croft (See pp. 38-43 ). For instance, the only significant relationship between the teachers' total values score and the climate subtests was to Production





Emphasis, the dimension showing the least common variance with climate. However, the relationship between the same teachers' values score and Organizational Climate is significant beyond the .01 level of confidence.

This situation results primarily from the fact that the teachers' total values score, though relating significantly with only one of the eight climate subtests, relates consistently and meaningfully with each of the other dimensions to establish an over-all significant relationship. This situation is also true, in varying degree, not only for the teachers' total score but also for the teachers' score on each of the values subtests.

In conclusion, therefore, Hypothesis Six, based on the theory and research which suggested that Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence, and not the nature of values as such, would relate to Organizational Climate, is not supported.

## II. VALUES AND THE AGE FACTOR

### Testing Hypothesis Seven.

The first hypothesis being tested in this section and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:

- VII. Older principals in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger principals.



Procedure. In order to test this hypothesis principals were divided into two equal groups on the basis of age. Mean values scores were computed for each group and the differences tested for significance by means of a one-tailed "t" test. The findings are presented in Table XXXII

TABLE XXXII

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR PRINCIPALS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF AGE

	Younger Principals (27 - 49)	Older Principals (49 - 65)	t
N	34	34	
Means <sup>a</sup>	35.94	38.94	1.76*
Variance	62	36	
(one-tailed test)			

\* Significant at .05 level.

<sup>a</sup> A numerically high value score indicates a higher degree of traditionalism.

Findings. The computed "t" score was statistically significant.

Discussion. On the basis of the above findings, Hypothesis Seven is supported. It might be of interest to note,





that although these values scores are not directly comparable with the findings of Prince, especially since the DVI has since been altered, the principals' mean value scores in this study indicate more traditional value patterns than do the principals' scores reported by Prince. These results, of course, were anticipated in the theoretical framework.

#### Testing Hypothesis Eight.

The next hypothesis being tested in this section and as formulated from the theoretical framework of this study is:

- VIII. Older teachers in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger teachers.

Procedure I. The teachers were divided into two groups on the basis of age. Those under twenty-five years of age were designated as the "younger" teachers; those twenty-five years or older, as the "older" teachers. Mean value scores were computed for each group and the differences were tested for significance by means of a one-tailed "t" test. The results are presented in Table XXXIII.

Findings. Although value means were in the predicted direction, the computed "t" score failed to attain statistical significance.





TABLE XXXIII

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR TEACHERS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF AGE

	Younger Teachers (17 - 24)	Older Teachers (25 - 64)	t <sup>a</sup>
N	390	350	
Means <sup>b</sup>	34.75	35.53	1.406
Variance	51.12	61.94	
(one-tailed test)			

<sup>a</sup> t = 1.64 required for significance at .05 level.

<sup>b</sup> A numerically high value score indicates a high degree of traditionalism.

Procedure II. Since eighty-three percent of all teacher respondents were female, it was decided to probe further into the possible relationships between values and the sex variable. Consequently, teachers were divided on the basis of sex. Mean values scores for each group were obtained and the differences tested for significance by means of a "t" test. The findings are presented in Table XXXIV.

Findings. Female teachers were significantly more emergent in their value patterns than were male teachers.



TABLE XXXIV

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR TEACHERS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF SEX

	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	t
N	121	426	
Means <sup>b</sup>	37.15	34.62	3.29***
Variance	53.44	57.91	

\*\*\*Significant at .001 level. (two-tailed test).

<sup>b</sup> A numerically high value score indicates a high degree of traditionalism.

Procedure III. These findings prompted a further analysis. Here, teachers were divided on the basis of both sex and age. A one-tailed "t" test was applied for each of the male and female teachers. The results are presented in Tables XXXV and XXXVI.

Findings. No significant difference was found between values means of male teachers divided on the age variable. Younger female teachers, however, were found to be significantly more emergent in their value patterns than were older female teachers.





TABLE XXXV

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR MALE TEACHERS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF AGE

	Younger Teachers (21 - 25)	Older Teachers (26 - 62)	t
N	66	55	
Means <sup>b</sup>	37.29	36.98	.228
Variance	50.41	56.85	
(one-tailed test)			

<sup>a</sup> t 1.64 required for significance at .05 level.

<sup>b</sup> A numerically high value score indicates a high degree of traditionalism.

TABLE XXXVI

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR FEMALE TEACHERS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF AGE

	Younger Teachers (21 - 24)	Older Teachers (25 - 64)	t
N	215	261	
Means <sup>b</sup>	33.86	35.25	2.00*
Variance	51.98	61.94	
(one-tailed test)			

\* Significant at .025 level.

<sup>b</sup> A numerically high value score indicates a high degree of traditionalism.



Procedure IV. This final analysis was similar to the preceding one, except that male and female teachers were divided into four age groups instead of the previous two. Four "t" tests were applied and the results are presented in Table XXXVII.

TABLE XXXVII

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VALUE-MEANS FOR TEACHERS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF AGE AND SEX

	Age	N	Means <sup>a</sup>	Variance	t
Male Teachers	21-29	89	37.37	44.49	3.70***
Fem. Teachers		261	34.11	53.29	
Male Teachers	30-39	12	37.75	107.95	.880
Fem. Teachers		50	35.32	62.57	
Male Teachers	40-49	7	38.43	17.14	1.107
Fem. Teachers		59	35.10	59.29	
Male Teachers	over 50	13	34.38	74.30	.370
Fem. Teachers		106	35.27	64.80	

\*\*\* Significant at .001 level.

<sup>a</sup>A numerically high value score indicates a high degree of traditionalism.

Findings. Only those female teachers in the first age group (21 - 29) were found to be significantly more emergent than their male counterparts. None of the other "t"s were





statistically significant.

Discussion. The absence of a stronger relationship between the values of older and younger male teachers is somewhat puzzling. This is especially so, since the mean value scores for older principals and older female teachers were each found to be significantly more traditional than their younger counterparts.

The relatively high mean value scores for male teachers compared to those of either the female teachers (See Table XXXVII, p. 161 ) or the principals (See Table XXXII, p. 156) may provide a partial answer. It may be that the relatively small number of male teachers (17%) in the elementary schools of this sample are considerably more traditional in their value patterns than are male staffs teaching at other levels. Inasmuch as traditionalism stresses to a considerable extent the value of Independence, it is quite likely that the smaller elementary school, where each teacher is normally given the opportunity to work independently with his one class of pupils, is more attractive to the male teacher with traditional value patterns than it is to his more emergent counterpart.

The fact that female teachers are significantly more emergent than male teachers is consistent with the findings





of McPhee (1, p. 16).

In conclusion, therefore, since only female teachers were found to hold significantly different value patterns when grouped on the age variable, Hypothesis Eight is considered to be partially supported.

This chapter has presented the testing and analysis of hypotheses Five to Eight. The statistically significant relationships which evolved from the analysis may be summarized as follows:

1. An emergent score by the principal and his staff on the value of Independence and also on the total values score showed a direct relationship to the "openness" of Organizational Climate. Conversely, an emergent score by the principal and his staff on the value of Moral Commitment showed an inverse relationship to the "openness" of Organizational Climate.
2. An emergent teachers' score on the values of Future-Time, Independence and total values score showed a direct relationship to the "openness" of Organizational Climate. An emergent teachers' score on the value of Moral Commitment showed an inverse relationship to the "openness" of Organizational Climate.



3. Older principals were found to hold more traditional value patterns than did younger principals.
4. Older female teachers were found to hold more traditional value patterns than did younger female teachers.
5. Female teachers were found to be more emergent in their value patterns than were male teachers.

In this chapter the relationships between the values held by individuals in the school and such variables as climate, age, and sex were investigated. The following chapter presents a summary of the study together with some conclusions and implications for further research.





## REFERENCES FOR CHAPTER VI

1. McPhee, Roderick F. "Individual Values, Educational Viewpoint and Local School Approval." Unpublished Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1959.



## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

#### I. SUMMARY

##### The Problem

The central research problem of this study was to assess the extent to which the principal's and teachers' values in a school situation are related to the social and administrative interactions within that school.

##### The Theoretical Framework

Much has been written about what appears as a "transformation" of the American culture. There seems to be ample evidence that because of the many ties between Canada and her southern neighbour, the Canadian culture is undergoing a similar change.

The basic theory underlying this study was presented by Spindler and subsequently elaborated on by Getzels. It suggests that certain values are undergoing changes from "traditional" to "emergent" orientations. According to the theory, older principals and teachers, because of their age and time of their childhood training are more likely to be



traditional in their value patterns than their younger counterparts. These differing values are expected to create conflict and misunderstanding, a situation which could affect the social behaviour within the schools.

In addition, this study has drawn from that body of knowledge which explicates the role of values in perception. One of the basic underlying assumptions in the design of the instrument used to measure social behaviour in this study is that the Organizational Climate of a school "is" what a consensus of observers declare it to be. In other words, the climate of a school is established by the perceptions of those individuals within the school. If values do in fact, influence perception, the relation between values and social behaviour becomes even more apparent, though admittedly not a clear one.

### Related Research

Although a number of studies have been included in the theoretical framework, this study is built on primarily three central pieces of research.

Prince's study suggested that further research into the





relationship between values and social behaviour could be a worthwhile endeavor. His findings tended to support the Spindler-Getzels theory. Abbott studied superintendent-school board relations. His research indicated that a person's values have an important influence upon his perceptions. The Alberta Study on Organizational Climate established a number of relationships between climate and other variables.

### Instrumentation

A number of factual items relating to individual and school characteristics were obtained by means of a General Questionnaire constructed especially for this study.

The values of principals and teachers were measured by the Differential Values Inventory.

The social behaviour of schools was obtained by The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

### The Sample

The sample consisted of all English Catholic elementary schools in the Greater Montreal area with a minimum of five full-time teachers and a principal or vice-principal in charge.



A total number of eighty-four principals were contacted, eighty-one of whom consented to involve their schools in the study. However, because of incomplete returns, four had to be excluded. The number of included schools, therefore, was seventy-seven, or ninety-one percent of the potential sample. Out of a possible 993 teacher respondents, 854 or eighty-six percent cooperated.

### Collection of Data

Contact for each school was made through the principal, whose cooperation to involve his school was sought. If permission was granted, all questionnaires were delivered personally to the school. At the time of delivery, arrangements were made for collecting the questionnaires. Whatever questionnaires had not been completed at the time of collection, were returned by mail. In all cases, the principals and teachers remained completely anonymous.

### Hypotheses and Findings

The following are the hypotheses and findings involved in the study:

- I. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence are directly related to the two climate subtests of Intimacy and Consideration.





This hypothesis was not supported. When schools were classified according to their Congruence scores, those schools where Value-Congruence was higher showed higher Intimacy scores. The relationship approached, but failed to achieve significance. Consideration was found to be strongly related to the teachers' mean value score on Moral Commitment.

II. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence are inversely related to the two climate subtests of Aloofness and Production Emphasis.

This hypothesis was essentially supported. Congruence was found to be negatively and significantly related to both Aloofness and Production Emphasis. This, however, was not the case for Value-Consonance. Upon further investigation, Aloofness was found to relate quite strongly with the principal's score on the value of Independence. Production Emphasis showed a positive relation to traditionalism on the staff.

III. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence are directly related to the two climate subtests of Esprit and Thrust.

This hypothesis was not supported. Neither Consonance nor Congruence showed significant relationships with Esprit and Thrust. In fact, when climate subscores were divided on Consonance, they tended to be in the opposite to the predicted direction. Significant negative relations were found between



both Esprit and Thrust and the teachers' value score on Independence.

- IV. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence are inversely related to the two climate subtests of Disengagement and Hindrance.

Although this hypothesis as stated was not supported, Congruence on one of the value subtests (Future-Time) did show a significant negative relation to Disengagement. Moreover, Disengagement was found to be directly related to the teachers' value scores on Work-Success and Independence, and inversely related to the teachers' value score on Moral Commitment.

- V. Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence are directly related to the "openness" of the Organizational Climate.

This hypothesis was not supported. No significant relationships were found between Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence and school climate as measured by the OCDQ.

- VI. No significant relationships exists between "traditional-oriented" behaviour or "emergent-oriented" behaviour and the "openness" of Organizational Climate.

The climate of those schools in which the principal and staff held to emergent value patterns tended to be Open; where the value patterns were traditional, the climates tended to be Closed. This was the case for the score on the value of Independence and the total values score. Conversely, a traditional





score on the value of Moral Commitment showed a positive relation to the "openness" of the Organizational Climate. These significant relationships persisted when the values of the principal were disregarded and only the values of the staff were considered. In fact, when only the values of the staff were taken into consideration, the relationships tended to be stronger.

VII. Older principals in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger principals.

This hypothesis was supported. As had been anticipated, there were indications that the principals' mean value scores in this study indicate more traditional value patterns than do the principals' value scores reported by Prince.

VIII. Older teachers in Canadian schools hold to more traditional values than do younger teachers.

This hypothesis was supported for the female teachers, but not for the male teachers. Also, female teachers were found to be considerably more emergent in their value patterns than the male teachers.

To summarize, the study showed Value-Congruence to be inversely related to the climate subtests of Aloofness, Production Emphasis and Disengagement. With respect to Disengagement, the significant relationship resulted from Congruence in the value subscore of Work-Success, rather than





Congruence in the total score as anticipated in the theoretical framework.

Value-Consonance showed no significant relationships with either the climate subtests or the climate itself. In fact, when it came to such "group" subtests as Espit and Disengagement, Consonance in values showed relationships in the direction opposite to that expected. Although the results were interpreted cautiously, especially in the absence of significant relationships, the trend in direction suggests that similarity in values among staff members as measured in this study could stand further investigation.

Paradoxically, the major finding of this study results from lack of support for Hypothesis Six. Negatively formulated, the hypothesis was drawn from theory and research on values and group affiliation. This body of knowledge suggests that it is the extent of similarity in values which will likely relate to the social behaviour of individuals, rather than the nature of the values of the group members.

The results of this study showed that with one exception (Work-Success), the values held by staff members were significantly related to the Organizational Climate of the school. When staff members held to traditional value



patterns the climates tended to be Closed. Emergent value patterns on the other hand were significantly related to Open Climates. In the case of Moral Commitment, the relationship was in the opposite direction. That is, traditional scores on Moral Commitment were directly related to Open Climates.

Finally, older principals and older female teachers were found to be significantly more traditional than their younger counterparts. No significant relationship was found between the values of male teachers when divided on the age factor. The study also showed that female teachers are significantly more emergent than male teachers.

## II. CONCLUSIONS

Before any generalizations are made, it is appropriate to review briefly what was said in another part of this study, Inasmuch as the present sample does not meet the requirement of random sampling from a larger population, statistical inferences beyond this study group are not justifiable. One should hasten to add, however, that "general inductive assumptions," that is, assumptions that a true statement about this study group will hold for other similar or fairly similar groups, when made judiciously, are both necessary and







useful. In fact, they may rightfully be expected from the researcher. The generalizations which are made in this section of the study are presented with this distinction in mind.

#### In Relation to the DVI

This study produced further evidence as to the construct validity of the DVI. Once again the instrument has essentially supported the theory underlying it. That is, that older persons tend to be more traditional in their value patterns than younger ones. In fact, with respect to age and values, the consistency of these findings with those of Prince, McPhee and Abbott, suggests that the situation in Canadian schools is not markedly different from that in American schools. Moreover, if one were to focus on the cross-sectional aspects of the study, he would have to conclude on the basis of the present findings that the transformation from traditional to emergent value patterns is as real on the Canadian scene as it is on the American. This is especially so when one considers that the sample for the present study is generally regarded to be relatively homogeneous in its value patterns and less subject to whatever value changes are inherent in the cultural transformation.

On the basis of these results, therefore, it is



concluded that the DVI is as applicable to the present sample and to other similar samples taken from the Canadian population, as it is to the American scene.

### In Relation to the OCDQ

All significant correlations among the climate subtests were of the same order as those of Halpin and Croft, and but for one exception, as those of Andrews. All were in the expected direction. When climate subtests were related to value scores, most significant relationships were found to be consistent with established theory.

Finally, in terms of held values among staff members, the six Organizational Climates present meaningful descriptions of global behaviour patterns in school situations. That is, the values held by individuals in a particular school are conducive to the type of behaviour patterns which make up the six Organizational Climates as described by Halpin and Croft (See pp. 38-43). The "openness" of climate showed a direct significant relationship to emergent value scores among staff members. These relationships with climate emerged in spite of an absence of significant relationships between the same value scores and the climate subtests.





### In Relation to Value-Consonance

This study failed to show any significant relationships between the similarity in values among staff members and the social behaviour within the school. Certainly Value-Consonance as defined and measured in this study is not related to the type of school situation where social needs are satisfied (Esprit), and where teachers enjoy friendly relations with each other (Intimacy). If such friendly relations do exist, they are more likely to be confined to smaller groups within the school rather than to staff members taken as a whole.

### In Relation to Value-Congruence

A more positive conclusion is warranted in regards to Value-Congruence. Agreement between the values held by the principal and his staff does bear a relationship to the social behaviour within the school. It was found that there were significant differences between the teachers' description of the principal's behaviour in those schools where Value-Congruence is high compared with the schools where Value-Congruence is low. Even where statistical significance was not attained, all relationships were in the predicted direction and generally, theoretically consistent.





### In Relation to Values and Social Behaviour

According to the findings of this study, the nature of values among staff members shows a consistent and significant relationship with certain climate subtests and especially with the Organizational Climate as a whole. In those schools where the principal and teachers hold to traditional values, climates tended to be closed; in schools where individuals hold to emergent value patterns the climates tended to be open.

In conclusion, it should perhaps be stated that nowhere in this study was it intended to suggest that failure to find a significant relationship between two variables means that no such relationship exists. This conclusion of course could not be justified, since failure to establish a significant relationship could be due to a number of other variables, such as the size of the sample, the statistical techniques, or for that matter, the instruments themselves.

In no case were cause and effect relationships established. When dealing with a variable such as values, however, the tendency is to infer such relationships. Since values, as defined for this study, are acquired over extended periods of time, one is easily tempted to think of values as the causal factor, and various aspects of social behaviour as the effects.



If such causal inferences do appear in this study, they have been made for speculative purposes only.

### III. IMPLICATIONS

#### For Research

The replication of certain parts of this study in a number of larger schools might be a worthwhile endeavor. In schools where a sufficient number of teachers are available, staff could be divided into meaningful typologies of Value-Consonance and Value-Congruence. It may be that the satisfaction of social needs, measured by the subtests in the "esprit" factor, is more likely to result from smaller groups within the school rather than from the staff taken as a whole.

The relationship between the values held by the principal and certain aspects of social behaviour could stand further investigation. The absence of expected relationships in this study may well be due to the fact that too many of the principals who participated in the study were relatively new to their schools. A study involving schools where principals are selectively chosen on the basis of years in the present school and years of experience, may prove useful.

A study of social and administrative interactions based





on perceived Value-Consonance and perceived Value-Congruence could provide further insights into the finer aspects of social behaviour within the school.

#### For Administration

For years the study of administration has been concerned with problem solving on a "how-to-do-it" basis. Most problems were frequently dealt with rather superficially by attempting to resolve the more obvious aspects of the conflict. The findings of this study suggest that what frequently appears to be differing attitudes about specific matters may well be a manifestation of much deeper differences. There is no intention to suggest that an awareness of the "true" symptoms will inevitably result in a lasting solution. It is suggested, however, that when the basic differences are understood, unfavorable situations can be dealt with much more adequately. Indeed, effective leadership of the principal depends upon an accurate diagnosis of the reality of the situation in which he finds himself.

The results of this study show that there is a strong probability that the behaviour of the principal is perceived differently by those teachers whose values are similar to his own than by those members of his staff who hold to different



values. If the teachers' perception of the principal as a leader will affect their own behaviour, the importance of values is obvious. In fact, this study shows that with few exceptions values showed consistent and significant relationships to the Organizational Climate of the school. Their importance, therefore, should not be minimized by the principal. Moreover, they should be given due consideration in any program which purports to train the educational administrator.

Finally, previous findings as well as those of this study suggest that the climate subtests represent important and theoretically meaningful concepts of administrative and social behaviour within the school. As such, these concepts could well form the basis for certain aspects of administrative training programs. They, or similar concepts, could become especially useful in the study of organization theory now that the latter has become in a sense, the basis for the study of administration.



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APPENDIX A  
INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY





## TO ALL TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

The following questionnaires form part of a study which I am presently conducting under the auspices of the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta.

Your cooperation in helping me carry out this research is most appreciated.

When you have completed the questionnaires, please place them in the envelope and seal it, then give it to your "key" teacher who will return to me all envelopes for the school.

Please be assured that this study is completely anonymous. Your name should not appear on any of these questionnaires.

Once again, thank you.

Sincerely,

Dante Lupini.



## GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Your name should NOT be placed on this questionnaire.

## SECTION A - FOR TEACHERS ONLY

Age-----

Sex-----

Number of years of teaching experience-----  
(Count present year as one)

Number of years in this school-----  
(Count present year as one)

## SECTION B - FOR PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS ONLY

Age-----

Sex-----

Position (Principal or Vice-Principal)-----

Number of years as Principal or Vice-Principal-----  
(Count present year as one)

Is there an annex to your school?-----

If so, what part of each week do you spend at the annex?

-----  
25%, 50%, 60%, etc.

PLEASE MAKE SURE THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS IN EITHER  
SECTION A OR SECTION B.

School No.-----





## D - V INVENTORY

## INSTRUCTIONS

Your name should NOT be placed on this questionnaire.

This questionnaire consists of a number of statements about things which you may think you ought or ought not to do and feel. These statements are arranged in pairs as in the examples below:

- |  |        |
|--|--------|
| 1. A. . .be reliable                   | 1. A B |
| B. . .be friendly                      |        |
| 2. A. . .work on a project with others | 2. A B |
| B. . .work on a project alone          |        |

To help you make the required choice, when reading the item to yourself, precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ." That is, in the examples given, you choose the item which is most desirable for you. If you feel that you ought to work on a project with others more strongly than you feel that you ought to work on a project alone, you should draw a circle around the letter A following the pair of items, thus:

- |  |          |
|--|----------|
| 2. A. . .work on a project with others | 2. (A) B |
| B. . .work on a project alone          |          |

If you feel more strongly about B than A, mark B, thus:

- |  |          |
|--|----------|
| 2. A. . .work on a project with others | 2. A (B) |
| B. . .work on a project alone          |          |

This is NOT a test. You are merely asked to indicate your opinions and feelings regarding a variety of subjects. Work rapidly. First impulses are important. Please answer ALL questions.



Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

1. A. (333) . . .work harder than most of those with a similar job.  
B. (513) . . .work at least as hard as most of those with a similar job.
2. A. (656) . . .do many things with other people.  
B. (190) . . .do things which are out-of-the-ordinary.
3. A. (724) . . .have my own firm ideas about politics and religion.  
B. (122) . . .allow the opinions of my friends and associates to influence my thinking on these matters.
4. A. (600) . . .enjoy myself often by doing things with others.  
B. (246) . . .seek satisfaction by doing many things on my own.
5. A. (393) . . .attain a higher position than my father or mother attained.  
B. (453) . . .enjoy more of the good things of life than my father and mother enjoyed.
6. A. (438) . . .feel that since the future is uncertain I should take advantage of my present opportunities.  
B. (408) . . .feel that the future holds more opportunities for me than the present.
7. A. (536) . . .feel that happiness is the most important thing in life to me.  
B. (309) . . .feel that enduring suffering and pain is important for me in the long run.
8. A. (580) . . .obtain advice from others in making decisions.  
B. (266) . . .be independent of others in making decisions.
9. A. (129) . . .feel it is my duty to save as much money as I can.  
B. (716) . . .feel that saving is good but not to the extent that I must deprive myself of all present enjoyment.





Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

10. A. (334) . . .put ten dollars in the bank  
B. (512) . . .spend five of the ten dollars enjoying myself with my friends.
11. A. (453) . . .spend less on clothes to dress as well as my friends and associates.  
B. (393) . . .spend less on clothes in order to save for future needs.
12. A. (339) . . .put in long hours of work without distraction.  
B. (506) . . .feel that I can't work long hours without distraction but I'll get the job done anyway.
13. A. (249) . . .feel that it is most important to live for the future.  
B. (594) . . .feel that today is important and I should live each day to the fullest.
14. A. (346) . . .feel that what is right for me may not be right for others.  
B. (499) . . .feel that I should be firm in my beliefs about what is right or wrong.
15. A. (209) . . .work hard to do most things better than others.  
B. (635) . . .work hard at some things and leave others to those who are more qualified than I.
16. A. (271) . . .feel that everybody misbehaves once in a while but the important thing is not to make the same mistake over again.  
B. (574) . . .feel that the most important thing in life is to strive for peace with God.
17. A. (333) . . .feel that work should come before pleasure.  
B. (512) . . .feel that pleasure is necessary to develop the well-rounded individual.





Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . . ."

18. A. (421) . . .consider what others think when deciding about right and wrong.  
B. (422) . . .feel that my own convictions about right and wrong are all that really matter.
19. A. (569) . . .defend my ideas about right and wrong.  
B. (282) . . .be willing to be convinced on matters of right and wrong because these terms have different meanings for different people.
20. A. (499) . . .make as many social contacts as possible.  
B. (347) . . .be willing to sacrifice myself for a better world.
21. A. (484) . . .get all my work done by my own efforts.  
B. (362) . . .get my work done with the help of others if I am allowed to.
22. A. (211) . . .wear clothes similar to those of my friends.  
B. (634) . . .dress modestly even though this makes me different than my friends.
23. A. (472) . . .work hard to earn enough money to enjoy some of the luxuries of life.  
B. (374) . . .work hard at doing something original regardless of pay.
24. A. (219) . . .get a job which will allow me to enjoy some of the luxuries of life.  
B. (626) . . .get a job which will make me a success in life.
25. A. (533) . . .be able to solve difficult problems and puzzles.  
B. (313) . . .feel that difficult problems and puzzles are good for some people but are not for everybody.



Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

26. A. (190) . . .feel that style is more important than quality in clothes.  
B. (655) . . .feel that quality is more important than style in clothes.
27. A. (365) . . .say what I think is right about things.  
B. (481) . . .be careful not to say things that will offend others.
28. A. (434) . . .feel comfortable doing as well as most people with a similar job.  
B. (412) . . .feel comfortable doing better than most others with a similar job.
29. A. (769) . . .have strong personal feelings about correct behaviour.  
B. (76 ) . . .feel that the group has the right to decide what kind of behaviour it will approve.
30. A. (642) . . .feel that discipline in the family today is not as strict as it should be.  
B. (203) . . .feel that change from strict discipline in today's family is a good one.
31. A. (233) . . .feel that one of the primary things in life is to gain knowledge useful to me in the future.  
B. (612) . . .feel that one of the primary things in life is to learn to get along with people.
32. A. (405) . . .do things without regard to what others may think.  
B. (441) . . .do things which allow me to have fun and be happy.
33. A. (475) . . .register for an adult education course which is very interesting to me, whether or not it will do me some good later on.  
B. (371) . . .register for an adult education course which is uninteresting to me but which will do me some good later on.





Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

34. A. (523) . . .attend a First of July celebration to enjoy myself being with people.  
B. (323) . . .attend a First of July celebration because it is my duty to be loyal to my country.
35. A. (294) . . .feel it is right to spend less for clothes in order to save for the future.  
B. (552) . . .feel that whether one wants to spend more for clothes and save less or vice versa is a matter of opinion.
36. A. (252) . . .try to do original and creative things.  
B. (594) . . .share my ideas and work cooperatively with others.
37. A. (272) . . .use expressions that are common among my friends and associates.  
B. (573) . . .use only correct expressions when I speak.
38. A. (533) . . .feel that it is right to save for the future.  
B. (315) . . .feel that whether or not it is right to save for the future is up to the individual.
39. A. (358) . . .choose a job with plenty of opportunities for advancement even though the pay isn't as high as I would like it to be.  
B. (488) . . .choose a job in which I can work with many interesting people.
40. A. (439) . . .mix in a little pleasure with my work so that I don't get bored.  
B. (405) . . .keep at a job until it is finished.
41. A. (145) . . .get as much pleasure as I can out of life now.  
B. (700) . . .stand by my convictions.
42. A. (234) . . .feel that everyone should be sociable even if it means occasional misbehaviour.  
B. (611) . . .feel guilty when I misbehave and expect to be punished.



Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

43. A. (785) . . .feel that children should obey decisions of their parents.  
B. (60 ) . . .feel that children should be able to do many of the things their friends do.
44. A. (369) . . .be very ambitious.  
B. (477) . . .be very sociable.
45. A. (143) . . .choose a job which will permit me to have as many luxuries as most of my friends.  
B. (702) . . .choose a job which promises advancement even though the pay is lower than that of my friends.
46. A. (382) . . .get the kind of job which will bring me in contact with many interesting people.  
B. (464) . . .get the kind of job which will make me a success in life.
47. A. (239) . . .feel that whether or not it is right to plan and save for the future is a matter of opinion.  
B. (606) . . .feel that it is right to plan and save for the future.
48. A. (654) . . .be willing to sacrifice myself for the sake of a better job.  
B. (192) . . .feel it is important to behave like most other people do.
49. A. (539) . . .deny myself enjoyment for the present for better things in the future.  
B. (307) . . .have fun attending parties and being with people.
50. A. (246) . . .be satisfied to do as well in life as my father did.  
B. (600) . . .attain a higher position in life than my father attained.





Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

51. A. (523) . . .feel that it will be good for me later if I endure some unpleasant things now.  
B. (323) . . .feel that whether or not I should be willing to endure unpleasant things now because it will be good for me later is a matter of opinion.
52. A. (110) . . .be able to have most of the things my friends have.  
B. (734) . . .be able to have enough money to lay away for future needs.
53. A. (418) . . .feel that happiness is the most important thing in life.  
B. (427) . . .feel that being respected is the most important thing in life.
54. A. (189) . . .feel that more "old-fashioned whippings" are needed today.  
B. (655) . . .feel that it is up to individual parents to decide whether or not children should be whipped.
55. A. (540) . . .exert every effort to be more successful this year than I was last year.  
B. (305) . . .be content with a reasonable amount of success and live longer.
56. A. (667) . . .try very hard to overcome my emotions.  
B. (177) . . .get as much pleasure as I can out of life now.
57. A. (313) . . .feel it is very important to be more successful this year than I was last year.  
B. (530) . . .feel it is more important to get along well with others.
58. A. (425) . . .feel that what is sinful for one person may be acceptable for another.  
B. (421) . . .feel that I should avoid even the appearance of sin.





Choose between statements A and B. Precede each statement with the phrase, "I ought to. . ."

59. A. (711) . . .spend as much time as I can in working independently.  
B. (134) . . .spend as much time as I can in having fun.
60. A. (597) . . .deny myself enjoyment for the present for better things in the future.  
B. (248) . . .be able to have as much enjoyment as my friends have.
61. A. (306) . . .feel that it is right to be very ambitious.  
B. (540) . . .feel that it may or may not be right to be very ambitious depending on the individual.
62. A. (180) . . .choose to work with people I like in a job I don't like.  
B. (664) . . .choose to work with people I don't like in a job which I like.
63. A. (636) . . .work as hard as I can in order to be successful.  
B. (208) . . .work as hard as I can in order to enjoy some of the luxuries of life.
64. A. (430) . . .strive to be an expert at something.  
B. (415) . . .do many things well but not be an expert in anything.

PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU ANSWERED ALL QUESTIONS



## ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by

ANDREW W. HALPIN

and

DON B. CROFT

Your name should NOT be placed on this questionnaire.

On the following pages is a list of items that are used to describe the organizational climate or the "personality" of your school. The items describe typical behaviours or conditions that occur within a school. Please indicate to what extent each of these descriptions characterizes your school. Please do not evaluate the items in terms of "good" or "bad" behaviour but read each item carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes your school.

It is important that your answers be "independent," so please do not discuss your answers with other teachers. Though there is no time limit, it will probably take you 15 or 20 minutes to complete.

Please be frank in your responses with the assurance that individual responses are strictly confidential.





## DIRECTIONS

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how well the statement describes your school.
- c. DECIDE whether the behaviour or the condition described in the item occurs rarely, sometimes, often, or very frequently in your school.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the four letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Very frequently occurs

B = Often occurs

C = Sometimes occurs

D = Rarely occurs

PLEASE RESPOND TO EVERY ITEM

1. Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school.
2. The mannerisms of the teachers at this school are annoying.
3. Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems.
4. Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available.
5. Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home.
6. There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority.
7. Extra books are available for classroom use.



8. Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports.
9. Teachers know the family background of other faculty members.
10. Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members.
11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done."
12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school.
13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members.
14. Teachers seek special favours from the principal.
15. School supplies are readily available for use in class-work.
16. Student progress reports require too much work.
17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school-time.
18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings.
19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues.
20. Teachers have too many committee requirements.
21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally.
22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions at faculty meetings.
23. Custodial service is available when needed.
24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching.
25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves.





26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings.
27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit.
28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers.
29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems.
30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves.
31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure.
32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself.
33. The principal does personal favours for teachers.
34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms.
35. The morale of the teachers is high.
36. The principal uses constructive criticism.
37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work.
38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups.
39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions.
40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day.
41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions.
42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences.
43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers.
44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day.
45. Teachers help select which courses will be taught.





46. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes.
47. The principal talks a great deal.
48. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers.
49. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers.
50. Extra duties for teachers is posted conspicuously.
51. The rules set by the principal are never questioned.
52. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of the teachers.
53. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use.
54. The principal runs the faculty meetings like a business conference.
55. The principal is in the building before the teachers arrive.
56. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports.
57. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda.
58. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings.
59. The principal tells the teachers of the new ideas he has run across.
60. Teachers talk about leaving the school system.
61. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of the teachers.
62. The principal is easy to understand.
63. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit.
64. The principal insures that the teachers work to their full capacity.



TO ALL TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND VICE-PRINCIPALS

Please accept my sincere thank you for the help you have given me in carrying out the study which I have undertaken here at the University of Alberta.

The exceptionally good response is certainly a manifestation of your good spirit of cooperation, and your desire to help further our knowledge of educational matters through research.

Needless to say, I am most appreciative. Without your cooperation it would not have been possible.

Sincerely,

DANTE LUPINI





APPENDIX B  
 SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES  
 (TABLES XXXVIII-XLII)



TABLE XXXVIII  
DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHERS' MEAN VALUE  
SCORES BY SCHOOLS

School Number	Value Score	School Number	Value Score	School Number	Value Score
1	37.77	28	35.75	55	34.40
2	33.28	29	35.33	56	38.11
3	37.00	30	37.25	57	33.90
4	36.88	31	38.62	58	40.37
5	29.57	32	35.92	59	34.36
6	36.08	33	37.63	60	32.28
7	36.33	34	31.14	61	33.00
8	32.61	35	34.38	62	36.00
9	34.18	36	35.55	63	34.33
10	39.61	37	36.46	64	36.50
11	35.33	38	31.60	65	40.80
12	29.22	39	36.90	66	34.83
13	31.08	50	33.33	67	33.50
14	32.90	41	40.14	68	33.28
15	35.57	42	35.28	69	34.20
16	39.18	43	37.42	70	31.00
17	29.71	44	34.00	71	36.25
18	32.88	45	38.36	72	37.12
19	37.50	46	35.23	73	30.16
20	32.58	47	35.44	74	31.00
21	33.86	48	39.54	75	32.16
22	35.10	49	32.57	76	34.00
23	35.80	50	36.08	77	33.14
24	32.50	51	38.50	78	36.30
25	35.71	52	38.41	79	23.00
26	37.66	53	37.12	80	
27	36.25	54	37.00	81	



TABLE XXXIX

DISTRIBUTION OF THE PRINCIPALS' VALUE  
SCORES BY SCHOOLS

School Number	Value Score	School Number	Value Score	School Number	Value Score
1	32.00	28	41.00	55	48.00
2	18.00	29	35.00	56	46.00
3	29.00	30	44.00	57	32.00
4	26.00	31	44.00	58	25.00
5	31.00	32	49.00	59	47.00
6	37.00	33	40.00	60	42.00
7	34.00	34	41.00	61	35.00
8	45.00	35	42.00	62	41.00
9	44.00	36	39.00	63	39.00
10	34.00	37	46.00	64	33.00
11	29.00	38	36.00	65	
12	43.00	39	30.00	66	40.00
13	35.00	40	35.00	67	48.00
14	37.00	41	35.00	68	43.00
15	41.00	42	35.00	69	32.00
16	18.00	43	46.00	70	39.00
17	41.00	44	54.00	71	45.00
18	41.00	45	29.00	72	39.00
19	21.00	46	39.00	73	37.00
20	28.00	47	33.00	74	38.00
21	35.00	48	39.00	75	33.00
22	33.00	49	30.00	76	46.00
23	38.00	50	42.00	77	39.00
24	37.00	51	32.00	78	30.00
25	51.00	52	48.00	79	
26	43.00	53	50.00	80	
27	33.00	54	33.00	81	





TABLE XL  
DISTRIBUTION OF VALUE-CONSONANCE SCORES  
BY SCHOOLS

School Number	Consonance Score	School Number	Consonance Score	School Number	Consonance Score
1	49.44	28	91.64	55	19.60
2	88.90	29	35.52	56	52.86
3	84.66	30	60.50	57	114.09
4	78.11	31	29.98	58	59.41
5	18.28	32	48.84	59	95.05
6	70.81	33	46.85	60	115.90
7	101.69	34	45.81	61	32.46
8	36.25	35	61.42	62	22.00
9	88.96	36	66.77	63	19.06
10	70.59	37	70.12	64	63.60
11	5.86	38	52.40	65	116.20
12	8.44	39	48.39	66	139.36
13	24.62	40	54.06	67	60.50
14	41.69	41	74.80	68	57.90
15	70.61	42	42.52	69	80.84
16	66.96	43	35.28	70	11.50
17	53.90	44	43.77	71	32.50
18	87.11	45	45.35	72	87.55
19	37.16	46	61.89	73	48.16
20	70.08	47	40.27	74	9.20
21	45.93	48	41.97	75	29.36
22	39.67	49	62.95	76	113.75
23	65.02	50	58.08	77	39.14
24	61.36	51	34.45	78	93.56
25	48.06	52	48.08	79	8.09
26	40.24	53	20.98	80	
27	25.26	54	54.57	81	



TABLE XLI  
DISTRIBUTION OF VALUE-CONGRUENCE SCORES  
BY SCHOOLS

School Number	Congruence Score	School Number	Congruence Score	School Number	Congruence Score
1	5.77	28	5.25	55	13.60
2	15.28	29	.33	56	7.88
3	8.00	30	6.75	57	1.90
4	10.88	31	5.37	58	15.37
5	1.42	32	13.07	59	12.63
6	.91	33	2.36	60	9.71
7	2.33	34	9.85	61	2.00
8	12.38	35	7.61	62	5.00
9	9.81	36	3.44	63	4.66
10	5.61	37	9.53	64	3.50
11	6.33	38	4.40	65	
12	13.77	39	6.90	66	5.16
13	3.91	40	1.66	67	14.50
14	4.09	41	5.14	68	9.71
15	5.42	42	.28	69	2.00
16	21.18	43	8.57	70	8.00
17	11.28	44	20.00	71	8.75
18	8.11	45	9.36	72	1.87
19	16.50	46	3.76	73	6.83
20	4.58	47	2.44	74	7.00
21	1.13	48	.54	75	.83
22	2.10	49	2.57	76	12.00
23	2.20	50	5.91	77	5.85
24	4.50	51	6.50	78	6.30
25	15.28	52	9.58	79	
26	5.33	53	12.87	80	
27	3.25	54	4.00	81	





TABLE XLII  
DISTRIBUTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATES  
BY SCHOOLS

School Number	Climate	School Number	Climate	School Number	Climate
1	Controlled	28	Controlled	55	Autonomous
2	Controlled	29	Familiar	56	Closed
3	Controlled	30	Open	57	Controlled
4	Closed	31	Closed	58	Familiar
5	Open	32	Closed	59	Closed
6	Controlled	33	Closed	60	Autonomous
7	Controlled	34	Controlled	61	Open
8	Closed	35	Autonomous	62	Familiar
9	Controlled	36	Paternal	63	Paternal
10	Familiar	37	Controlled	64	Open
11	Autonomous	38	Familiar	65	Paternal
12	Paternal	39	Closed	66	Closed
13	Familiar	40	Closed	67	Controlled
14	Open	41	Open	68	Familiar
15	Autonomous	42	Autonomous	69	Familiar
16	Closed	43	Paternal	70	Controlled
17	Controlled	44	Controlled	71	Open
18	Open	45	Controlled	72	Familiar
19	Paternal	46	Familiar	73	Paternal
20	Closed	47	Familiar	74	Paternal
21	Open	48	Closed	75	Controlled
22	Controlled	49	Paternal	76	Open
23	Open	50	Open	77	Paternal
24	Autonomous	51	Open	78	Open
25	Closed	52	Paternal	79	Controlled
26	Closed	53	Paternal	80	Open
27	Controlled	54	Open	81	Open



APPENDIX C  
INTERCORRELATION MATRIX (31 VARIABLES)  
(TABLE XLIII)



INTERCORRELATION MATRIX (31 VARIABLES)

[illegible]







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